

Disadvantaged Workers  
and Employment :

POLICIES, PROGRAMS .  
AND JOBS *331.54.BRO*

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A REPORT COMMISSIONED  
BY THE VICTORIAN SOCIAL  
WELFARE DEPARTMENT

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**Brotherhood of St Laurence, March 1979**

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## 1. ORIGINS OF THE STUDY

### The Issue

In Australia unemployment is the major social issue of the 1970's. Despite its serious social and economic consequences the Australian people generally have been slow to become involved in the debate about the causes of unemployment and its solutions. Many different explanations are given for the reluctance of the Australian people to face up to this serious problem, explanations which range from selfishness on the part of those who are employed, to lack of motivation of those who are unemployed.

As the decade nears its end the debate gains momentum, but in a way that does not augur well for the future of Australia. Little is being done to share views, opinions, and information which might help Australians (whether they are employers or the employed) reach a consensus view about what is to be done. Few mechanisms which depend on the increased communication of all the groups in the community affected by unemployment have been devised.

This report is an attempt to take all views into consideration, while emphasising the plight of those groups which are most affected by unemployment, those groups which are most vulnerable to unemployment, those groups which have the least power to change employment patterns. The Brotherhood of St. Laurence has been the advocate for such groups since 1933 and it is appropriate that it obtained the commission for this study.

Unemployment is a complex social problem and consequently its causes are many and varied. The causes are reported in a wide variety of documents, most of which are biased towards the sectional interests of the author.



Nevertheless, most analysts agree that the two main causes of unemployment in the 1970's are an overall shortage of jobs and a mismatch between jobs and workers. The interplay between these two factors means that the unemployment problem will not be solved even if there is a sudden increase in the aggregate demand for workers, because the majority of people who are unemployed are unskilled and semi-skilled workers. The demand for such workers mostly comes from the manufacturing and rural industries which have employed a declining percentage of the workforce since 1950. By contrast, there is an increase in the percentage of the workforce employed in those sectors in which the skilled and professional occupations are concentrated, that is in the service and mining sectors. In other words, many of the unemployed lack the skills which are required for the dwindling number of jobs available.

Thus the unskilled or semi-skilled workers are further disadvantaged, and are likely to move into a period of prolonged unemployment. The detailed effects of prolonged unemployment are perhaps irrelevant in this context, but in summary are: the chronic disorganisation of family life, loss of self-confidence, isolation, resentment, hostility, sickness and helplessness, all of which can lead to anti-social behaviour.

#### The Concern of the Social Welfare Department

The Department is in receipt of a number of reports, all of which indicate that Victoria is facing the beginning of a long-term unemployment problem which will have a particular impact on young people. It is recognised that this problem is a manifestation of complex factors, many of which are beyond the control of the State Government, but that the social effects of prolonged unemployment on disadvantaged people are the concern of the Department.

Many of the clients of the Social Welfare Department are particularly susceptible to long-term unemployment. Analysis of relevant research indicates high correlations between unemployment and family disruption, unemployment and adult crime, unemployment and delinquency, and between long-term unemployment in the young and patterns of pessimism, fatalism, shock and social alienation.

The significant decline in employment opportunities in the semi-skilled and unskilled areas is of particular relevance to the clients of the Department, as it is in these areas of the job market that they are forced to compete. The large numbers of school leavers entering the workforce aggravate the problems of disadvantaged groups already seeking jobs, and in a short space of time many of these young school leavers will become disadvantaged workers, experiencing the growing impact of continuous rejection by the labour market. The staff of the Department, and many welfare agencies in Victoria, are already observing the growing strain within families where there are young unemployed. This strain is particularly apparent in those families where the major breadwinner is also unemployed.

The Department considers that existing manpower programs may not be reaching their clients, and that a critical review and appraisal of their impact on the most disadvantaged in the workforce is required. If, as is suspected, manpower programs are not reaching disadvantaged groups, then there is a need for the development of program packages which will reach them, and which improve and increase their employment prospects.

#### The Concern of the Brotherhood of St. Laurence

Since its establishment in 1933, the Brotherhood of St. Laurence has been actively involved in both helping and publicising the plight of the unemployed. Its very

first project was the establishment of a hostel for unemployed men in 1934. Also, 'the undertaking of works for the support, aid and help of young persons employed in trade and industry' is one of the three objectives of the Brotherhood contained in the Act of Parliament which governs its endeavours.

When unemployment re-emerged as a major social problem in the 1970's, the Brotherhood undertook a large number of new initiatives involving considerable realignment of its own resources. As the unemployment rate soared between 1972 and 1975, the Social Issues Department of the Brotherhood conducted several research studies and published numerous publications (a list of the publications can be found in Appendix A).

Eventually two service innovations were introduced in 1977 and 1979. In January 1977, the Job Centre was opened, to test the widely publicised contention that there were sufficient job opportunities available and the problems were in the field of job preparation and job placement. The Centre was closed in June 1978, after systematically collected evidence indicated that there was a shortage of job vacancies, and a serious mismatch between the unemployed and existing vacancies.

Arising out of the Job Centre experience and its evaluation, a second service, the Unemployment Rights Service, was planned, and was officially opened in January 1979.

Since its inception the Brotherhood has been concerned to equalise opportunities for poor people and disadvantaged groups; therefore it was to be expected that its workers would examine existing manpower programs from the point of view of those groups with which it was traditionally concerned. This examination revealed that the unskilled and semi-skilled were not being effectively assisted. Available programs were inadequate for the needs of many of the unemployed - in particular, they

were inadequately funded, failed to define target groups, and lacked variety and flexibility. It appeared that inadequate provision was made for the disadvantaged and that there was a tendency for the better educated, better qualified and more experienced to obtain places in available manpower programs, at the expense of the disadvantaged.

In effect it was found that those workers who were most vulnerable to unemployment and who had the greatest need for manpower programs were least likely to find places in them.

In summary, the central objective of the Brotherhood is to provide a direct service to disadvantaged groups and to reflect on this experience through formal research, discussion documents, submissions to Government and Government-appointed inquiries, and through community education programs. Innovative projects are developed from time to time to test out new ways of meeting social welfare needs. Critical to these innovative projects for the unemployed and the poor, for example the Family Centre Project, the Action and Resource Centre, and the Job Centre, has been an inbuilt research evaluation which enables the Brotherhood to evaluate their effectiveness.

#### The Common Concern

It is not surprising that the Social Welfare Department, and one of Victoria's largest voluntary welfare agencies, have many common concerns, particularly as they both offer services to some of the most disadvantaged groups in this community. In this context it is important to both agencies that their clientele are neither increased nor further disadvantaged by growing unemployment.

In recent times both agencies have emphasised a preventive or developmental approach rather than a remedial approach in the formulation of their policies and programs. Consequently, it is appropriate that both agencies are seeking new ways in which the disadvantaged can avoid the known disastrous effects of prolonged unemployment. It is clear that new initiatives are required to provide disadvantaged workers with opportunities which equip them to compete on an equal level in the open market for those jobs which are available.

In late June, 1978, the Victorian Social Welfare Department approached the Brotherhood of St. Laurence to investigate, study and report on existing manpower programs, and to design and develop new approaches to the training and employment of disadvantaged workers affected by long-term unemployment.

On 12 July, 1978, a Proposal to Investigate New Approaches to the Long-Term Unemployment of Disadvantaged Groups in Victoria, was submitted to the Minister for Social Welfare.

This proposal was formally accepted on 18 August, 1978, and the Minister for Social Welfare, Mr. Brian Dixon, approved a grant of \$25,000 to assess and develop programs for disadvantaged workers.

#### The Brotherhood Proposal

The proposal outlined the special experience and history of the agency in the field of unemployment and the disadvantaged, and set down the following objectives for investigation and study.

- \* To achieve equity for disadvantaged young people in securing jobs in the community.

- \* To devise packaged programs for disadvantaged groups in order to improve their employment prospects, by the co-ordination and imaginative use of existing resources in education, training and employment.
- \* To develop an implementing structure which will monitor and continue to package all existing and future manpower programs from the point of view of their utilisation by disadvantaged young people.

The proposal also contained a series of implementation steps culminating in the presentation of a report to the Department within a period of six months. The report was to outline the ways in which existing resources, both in the public and private sectors, could be used to give disadvantaged people an equal opportunity to obtain work in the labour market. The report was also to emphasise feedback from relevant organisations in the community about the programs specifically devised to give disadvantaged people equal opportunity.

The Agreement between the Social Welfare Department and the Brotherhood of St. Laurence

The agreed focus of the study was to develop model packages and programs and investigate options and directions which might be available with a view to assisting better disadvantaged unemployed groups in general, but with particular emphasis being placed on the situation of young job seekers.

The research project was initially to concentrate on:

- \* identifying existing projects which are approved for Commonwealth funding, and which could be developed into model packages;
- \* producing a document on options, and possible directions for manpower programs;
- \* developing a revised approach to community service projects which would be operable within Federal guidelines.

An interim report was requested for late October which outlined the progress made toward the achievement of the above three objectives, and preliminary indication of trends and findings of the study. The interim report was to be used as a document for community consultation. It was to be disseminated as widely as possible in the limited time available and feedback was to be incorporated in the final report.

## 2. STUDY METHODOLOGY

The study was designed in four distinct phases: data collection and assessment; the production of an interim report based on the data and its assessment and offering a tentative framework for the analysis of manpower programs; a community consultation around the interim report to test the framework for analysis and the broad options for manpower programs; a final report which incorporated the feedback from the community, developed the framework for analysis of programs, and devised programs for disadvantaged workers.

The division of the study into four distinct phases was not a deliberate part of the design, but was primarily imposed by factors outside the control of the staff working on the study. These factors included: the requirements of the Social Welfare Department, for example, the request for an interim report; the constraints imposed by time, for example, there was not enough time to improve the data base by the use of survey techniques; the Brotherhood value base, for example, the belief that consumers should be involved in planning their own services.

A staff team was established to carry out the study. The team was supervised by the Associate Director of Social Issues and Research and included the Brotherhood's permanent social policy officer. Two full-time project officers and a stenographer were temporarily employed for the six month period of the study.

The Social Welfare Department formed a small Departmental Committee to overview the Department's involvement in the field of unemployment, and to liaise with the Brotherhood in regard to the project.



A representative of the Brotherhood was appointed to the State Government's Youth Employment Committee to facilitate communication with other Government Departments.

The Brotherhood requested the Minister for Social Welfare to approach the Minister for Employment and Youth Affairs regarding the study in order to gain effective and mutually beneficial co-operation from the Department of Employment and Youth Affairs.

#### Data Collection and Assessment

The Brotherhood has spent more than a decade studying and researching unemployment and its effects on disadvantaged people. This effort has resulted in two resource banks which proved to be the starting point of the study and of subsequent immense importance. These resource banks are collections of literature and human resources.

The literature resource consists of written material of various types, for example, pamphlets, books, conference papers, newspaper clippings. This material was scattered throughout the organisation - in the library, in individuals' filing cabinets, in different departments. The first task was to collect this information into one resource file and organise it for the use of the study.

The human resource consists of a network of individuals and organisations which have been developed through previous research, social policy and service efforts. For example, the experimental service, the King Street Job Centre, was instrumental in the development of contacts within many manpower programs.

Deficiencies and gaps in both the literature and human resource banks led to the next step in the study methodology. Three different methods were used to fill gaps in the knowledge and human network.

- \* A document search was undertaken and new material obtained from local, interstate and overseas sources.
- \* Arrangements were made to join working committees and parties relevant to the study and to develop close working relationships with their research and project officers.
- \* A three-pronged field work program was undertaken to study local and interstate manpower programs in their particular settings, to interview relevant administrators in the manpower and education systems, to hold discussions with other voluntary organisations relevant to the study.

Apart from filling gaps in knowledge, the field work program was the first step taken to actually examine and evaluate existing funded manpower programs. This program occupied a large proportion of the study time and was a major source of evidence for the interim report. No other systematic evaluation of these programs has been conducted, except within the Department of Employment and Youth Affairs (DEYA), and most of these evaluations are not public.

To some extent, the field workers for the study were selected because of their particular knowledge and individual contacts, for example, the Co-ordinator of the King Street Job Centre was selected because of her contacts with other manpower programs and one other

worker because of many years' experience in the Department of Employment and Youth Affairs. A full list of organisations and individuals consulted can be found in Appendix B.

The study team was continually conscious of the shortage of time allowed for preparation of the report and that the field work program would be a substitute for a more thorough study based on surveys of employers, project workers and unemployed people.

Local manpower and education programs were studied by arranging visits with selected project. Expert advice was used to select the projects so that a complete coverage of the different varieties of programs was obtained. In all, 34 different programs, in both the city and the country, were visited. Each visit was recorded and used as part of the material on which the interim report was based.

Before the study, Brotherhood workers had visited Queensland, New South Wales, South Australia and Tasmania and briefly surveyed manpower programs in these States. Contacts were made on these visits which proved to be fruitful for the study and facilitated the collection of data which formed the basis of the overview of State manpower programs presented in the interim report. South Australia proved to have the most developed and extensive programs and, consequently, a second follow-up visit was made to that State.

Further collection of data and assessment of existing manpower programs was obtained by interviewing administrative officers at all levels of government who were responsible for operating relevant programs. A comprehensive list of the Departments and divisions from which various government officials were interviewed is also contained in Appendix B. The list also includes many institutions concerned with education,

the transition from school to work, manpower and employment.

In addition, contact was made with other non-government organisations which were attempting to contribute to the debate around employment issues and the seriousness of unemployment for vulnerable groups in the community. In this context, the Unemployed Workers Union is of particular interest, as it is the only group in this community composed of, and representing, unemployed people. Some very specific data about manpower programs, and their effectiveness in meeting the real needs of the unemployed was collected from these groups.

While data collection and assessment formed the major part of the work in the first stage of the report, it was not possible to complete it at that time. Consequently, some data collection and assessment continued during the production of the interim report and the consultation process.

### The Interim Report

Part of the agreement between the Social Welfare Department and the Brotherhood was that an interim report would be available at the end of October, 1978. This report was to outline the progress of the study and any preliminary trends and impressions already formed.

In less than three months this report was produced. It contained a mass of data about manpower programs in Australia and overseas. This data was placed in the context of an assessment of the causes of unemployment, particularly unemployment caused by structural change, and the ramifications of structural unemployment for manpower programs and disadvantaged workers.

In the interim report, no attempt was made to work out particular program proposals for disadvantaged workers because it was believed that before this could be done, knowledge of existing programs should be shared with community groups. In this way, it was hoped that new proposals would be developed in conjunction with the people for whom they were designed and those who would be implementing them.

Instead of presenting specific programs, the interim report organised all the data which had been collected into possible options for the future. These options were meant to serve as a catalyst to critical discussion for groups concerned with unemployment issues.

While assembling information for the interim report, the study team was conscious of the desire expressed by interested groups within the community to do something about unemployment at a local level. It became evident that many groups did not know how to translate this interest into effective action, that many were confused and frustrated about the lack of information available, particularly concerning government manpower programs which could be available and used at the local level. Consequently, it was decided to draw up a guidebook for local groups, setting down the basic information required in the consideration of alternative services currently available, and the steps necessary to implement these alternatives. This guidebook will be published as a separate document in the near future.

Some theoretical problems and dilemmas were also presented in this report as indicators of the complexity of the unemployment issue and of the task which faced the Brotherhood workers. Considerable effort was expended in defining a disadvantaged worker; in identifying the values and assumptions which were used to assess manpower programs; in developing a framework

to categorise employment strategies and the manpower programs which arise from them.

The Minister for Social Welfare originally requested that the interim report should 'be made available to the community for comment through the Regional Consultative Committees of the FACS programs and the Youth Council of Victoria'. This original intent was extended by both the Minister and the Brotherhood to include a much wider range of groups.

#### Community Consultation

Community consultation is a new term used by social scientists in a most confused way. It appears to have no exact definition. A search of the appropriate literature shows that historically the term was used by town planners who wished to involve local citizens in the design of their own living spaces. Perhaps a more modern view of community consultation is that it is part of the process of community development, and is primarily used to provide information and resources to a community so that its citizens can become involved in forming opinions, and devising solutions to problems which affect their lives. Community consultation is one way of all citizens taking part in the decision-making process instead of decision making staying in the hands of a few experts or authorities.

The use of the technique of community consultation in this study arose from a value strongly held within the Brotherhood. This value is that those groups and individuals who are affected by unemployment, in particular the unemployed, should be given the opportunity to be involved in the search for appropriate solutions to it.

The technique of community consultation involved the distribution of the interim report to relevant groups and individuals. In this way individuals and groups were enabled to assess for themselves the current context of unemployment; to evaluate the Brotherhood's assessment of the current manpower programs in Australia; to learn about a range of overseas programs; to examine, within a range of employment strategies, a series of options, both for present programs and for future program development.

Several methods were used to reach the community in the short space of time available for the consultation. In order to reach as many people as possible the assistance of co-ordinating organisations and associations was sought. A letter was sent to a variety of groups representing all sections of the community which enlisted their co-operation to obtain feedback on the interim report from their members and affiliates. A comprehensive summary of the report was prepared to help organisations obtain this feedback, and Brotherhood workers were offered as resources.

Where it was believed that certain target groups would not be reached through this process, for example the unemployed, the Brotherhood initiated public meetings.

The Social Welfare Department used yet another method of consultation by using the interim report as a background paper for the Caltex Conference<sup>1</sup> and the Premier's 'Work for Tomorrow' Conference. This method provided feedback from a variety of experts, which proved to be immensely useful in writing the final report.

Thus, by a variety of methods, the interim report was used to further discussion and comment by government departments, community groups, voluntary associations, trade unions, employer groups and service agencies active in the field of unemployment and manpower programs. On this basis it was hoped that the final report and the recommendations therein would be a reflection of the ideas of many diverse and interested groups, including a true and accurate picture of the needs and problems of those people who are most disadvantaged in the employment market, the unemployed.

To some extent this objective was met. A great deal of valuable information, and many different perspectives and insights were obtained as a result of the consultation. However, the consultation process was restricted, and therefore its results limited, by two uncontrollable factors - time and understanding.

The study schedule required the consultation process to take place between mid-November and mid-January. Frequently organisations were unable to organise responses from their members at this time of the year and consequently offered only limited co-operation. Also the resources of the study were inadequate to obtain a wide response from the community in the limited period of those two months which, in Australia, are traditionally 'holiday' months.

The consultation was also limited by a lack of common understanding of the community consultation process and a mixed response to the request. It was clear that some individuals and organisations were over-exposed to requests for information or co-operation around unemployment projects and saw no special reason to accede to the Brotherhood's request to seek the views of their members. The Brotherhood workers also assumed that organisations would use a range of techniques to obtain the views of their members and affiliates. No such level of understanding or sophistication existed.



The letter from the Brotherhood which enlisted co-operation suggested calling a meeting of members. Consequently, most organisations with some notable exceptions, either called a meeting, discussed the matter at executive level, or did nothing at all. This failure to understand that the views of some groups of people cannot be obtained through public meetings or community forums meant that the community consultation probably did not obtain the views of some of the most significant members of the community.

Time limits forced the Brotherhood workers to make a similar mistake. Although they were aware that some groups of people require time and specially skilled staff before responses can be obtained from them, a public meeting of the unemployed was held. Seven people, plus one reporter and two staff members attended that meeting. This is really a predictable result. Unemployed people want jobs not talk, and unless special efforts are made to make the reasons for the meeting quite clear, the response is likely to be poor.

Community development theory has always warned that the community forum is not an appropriate technique to elicit responses from some groups and individuals. It is no accident that the few real community consultations which have been held in Victoria, (for example, the Youth 2000 series) have utilised a variety of techniques and considerable funds and resources.

Despite these limitations, many individuals and organisations made contributions to this final report through the consultation process. Naturally there were many points of agreement and disagreement both on the assessment of manpower programs, and on the range of options raised. Such debate is a desirable and essential result of the community consultation process. The information obtained from the consultations was incorporated into the report or used as background material because:

Consultation is a process by which individuals come together to share opinions, views and information ... a process of communication whereby decisions can be reached ...<sup>2</sup>

### Data Analysis

The interim report defined a number of values upon which the project was based, and a tentative framework for analysing manpower programs. This framework consisted of a set of four employment strategies, (macro-economic, labour efficiency, job creation, employment redistribution), the aims of these strategies, some examples of programs which reflect each strategy, and the particular problems created by each particular strategy.

During the consultation process this framework for analysis drew comments and criticisms from several noted economists, which were useful in preparing the final framework for analysis. Little comment on the values and assumptions was received, however, despite their importance to the analysis and recommendations made.

On the basis of the comments, and further work by the Brotherhood, a more comprehensive framework for analysis was developed and utilised in this report. It is considered that the framework is the most important part of the report, and the next section is devoted entirely to it. The framework provides a tool for analysis which allows for the comparison of manpower programs themselves. Hopefully it will facilitate the assessment of existing and new programs, and enable debate to take place in a more coherent manner.

The framework is still based on the values and assumptions spelt out in the interim report. These were modified only slightly and constitute the critical base to subsequent judgements and recommendations.

On the basis of criticism and comment the employment strategies have been reviewed and further developed, to provide an overview of the major policy issues involved for each strategy, and the kinds of programs which derive from each strategy. The scope of this report cannot allow a full discussion of the broad political ramifications of the strategies, or their far-reaching economic implications. However, the strategies do facilitate an overview and categorisation of the major issues.

The interim report demonstrated that these employment strategies, while allowing categorisation of manpower programs, were not useful for comparative analysis of the programs themselves. A review of Australian and overseas programs demonstrated, however, a number of principles which appeared to discriminate consistently between effective and ineffective programs. These principles were discussed, developed and refined and formed the basis of ten planning principles recommended for the design, implementation and administration of manpower programs. They have been used extensively in this report to act as criteria for assessing the ways in which existing programs could be amended to improve accessibility for disadvantaged workers, to judge and assess suggested new manpower programs, and critically to compare existing programs.

As indicated above the framework for analysis is an important part of the report and it is hoped it will serve as a useful tool in social policy long after the details are outmoded.

### Constraints

This section on the methodology of this study is not complete without enumerating the major constraints experienced by the workers who conducted the study.

Some of these constraints, all of which affected the methodology used, have been mentioned already - the imposition of a particular study design for external reasons, and the limitation of the consultation process.

Perhaps the most important constraints on the study methodology were those imposed by time and resources. An enormous task was undertaken with a commitment to complete it in six months. The study grant provided three and one half staff which included a full-time stenographer. Although the new staff were acquainted with the area for investigation, time was required for them to learn to work as a team before they could produce results. This factor, together with the particular time of the year in which the study was conducted, meant that time was the most precious commodity of the study. In summary, the resources supplied to complete the study in the time required were most inadequate. One illustration of this inadequacy was the limitation on the consultation process.

It should be remembered that the study was accepted in the context of a real and substantive decline in available job opportunities relative to the numbers of people seeking employment. Throughout the study, the Brotherhood was constantly facing the dilemma of analysing programs and proposing options in the context of structural unemployment. As a consequence, recommendations reflect the compromises and costs of this harsh national problem.

Another significant constraint was that imposed by the absence of vital information. Despite the almost total co-operation of all agencies consulted, vital data was not available in many situations, or could not be formally released in others. It also became apparent quite soon that the data which did exist about employment, unemployment and the unemployed,

revealed little about disadvantaged workers. In fact, the particular social and human costs borne by the disadvantaged worker is hidden to the community. Health and welfare agencies tend to have access to these hidden costs, but a comprehensive review of this data was not possible within the time and resource constraints of the study.

The constraint which was most disappointing for members of an independent agency was that imposed by organisations, both public and private, which have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo. In organisations related to the workforce, as in all human organisations, the complexity and variety of vested interests and the motivation underlying them are infinite. To examine such vested interests is a matter for separate study but a few examples explain the way in which vested interests can act as a constraint on a study, the aim of which was to equalise opportunities for disadvantaged workers. For example, some employers believe that a pool of unemployed people is an important constraint on wage escalation; some professional administrators are determined that manpower programs will succeed as a boost to their own careers whether the unemployed are helped or not; some projects collude in the 'creaming-off process' whereby the disadvantaged are squeezed out of manpower programs so that their particular projects will appear 'successful'.

The evidence provided by organisations or individuals with vested interests is sometimes selective, incomplete and prejudicial and although particular attention was given to judgement of this evidence by Brotherhood workers it was an all-pervading constraint. Wherever possible, suitable checks and balances were used to overcome this constraint, for example, at least two workers attended all public meetings.

The final constraint was of vital importance to this study and probably to most social science investigations. This constraint was the wide gap that was revealed between the theory and practice of manpower programs. Administrators of manpower programs develop guidelines for programs from manpower theories which are impossible to put into practice. Consequently practitioners ignore the guidelines and the gap between theory and practice widens. The difficulty of reporting honestly on this gap between theory and practice has been one of the major constraints of this study.

#### The Final Report

It is hoped that this report, despite its methodological difficulties and constraints, is a significant contribution to the study of unemployment, of manpower programs and of the disadvantaged worker.

After publication the report will belong to the Social Welfare Department. Originally, the Department planned to release the report through the lapsed Youth Employment Committee and will now/presumably release it through the Victorian Employment Committee.

The Brotherhood suggested to the Department that the final report should be released through a second consultation process in order to heighten community awareness of the problem of unemployment and its effects on the disadvantaged worker. In this way the report can be seen, not as an end in itself, but as the beginning of a process which might end in some equitable solution to unemployment and its unequal distribution in the community.

References

1. 'The Caltex Conference' was a specially convened private conference on employment and unemployment sponsored by Caltex Oil (Australia) Pty. Ltd. It was held on 15-16 November, 1978, Melbourne.
2. Montague, Meg, Youth 2008 ... Focus on Employment, Project Report Youth Council of Victoria, December 1978, p.8.

### 3. FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

It is easy to criticise the inadequacies of Australia's manpower policies and programs. However, without an adequate framework for analysis, such criticism amounts to little more than a list of grievances about inconsistent administration, incorrect policies and misdirected priorities. As a consequence, proposed reforms tend to be technical and administrative in nature, and aimed at reshaping and rehabilitating existing programs, instead of providing constructive alternative policies and programs.

The use of a framework for analysis, on the other hand, means that grievances can be developed into critiques of policies and programs, and that these critiques can be used to develop alternative policies and programs.

#### Values and Assumptions

A framework for analysis has several components, including a series of interdependent values, assumptions, strategies and planning principles. Once these values, assumptions, strategies and principles are established, it is possible to test them against existing manpower programs, and hence to arrive at an understanding of the theory underlying them. It is then possible to examine the relationship which exists between theory and practice in these programs.

At the same time, it needs to be recognised that values and assumptions, strategies and principles differ, and that what follows is one particular set of values, assumptions, strategies and principles.<sup>1</sup> The values on which this framework for analysis are based are:



1. Every person has a right to an equal opportunity to develop as a person to the fullest extent through good quality education, health, housing and social services, without regard to their ability to pay.
2. Systems of government and the institutions of society must be determined by people's needs and rights. In this context power should be decentralised and participation maximised wherever, and however, possible.
3. All persons have the right to the satisfaction of basic needs, in particular, meaningful activity, to ensure that they are able to function at a level which maintains personal dignity and is commensurate with minimum standards established by society.
4. All persons have the right to 'adequate income' to fulfil basic needs.<sup>2</sup> This income should be available either through work or income security measures. Adequate income security measures provided by governments for those persons for whom work is not available are the right of such persons, and are a recognition of the fact that inability to obtain work is a function of economic, social and political forces in a dynamic and changing society and is not the fault of the individual.
5. Given the chance to obtain employment, which is personally satisfying and challenging, all persons want to work.

6. Everyone who wishes to work should have the right to work.
7. Society has a responsibility to maximise the availability of work.<sup>3</sup>
8. Society has a responsibility to ensure that those who work are given the opportunity to develop fully their work potential.<sup>4</sup>
9. All persons have the right to be employed in a job which is not noxious, harmful or injurious to health.
10. In work situations and employment programs the community generally, and specifically employers, employees, trade unions, educationalists and the unemployed, has a right to be involved in defining and determining the nature and direction of society.
11. Manpower programs should be planned and implemented to protect the rights of participants as employees. Conditions, entitlements and expectations of participants should be clear, specified and consistent with the conventions which apply to other employees.

From these values flow several assumptions about unemployment, government policies and programs, and community attitudes:

1. Given current government economic policies, and taking into account the underlying impact of increasing technological change

it is assumed that unemployment will continue at current high levels. Without fundamental cultural, political and economic changes, high- and long-term unemployment will remain a permanent feature of Western Society and there will be severe political, social and economic consequences.

2. Community attitudes and positions on the desirable level of unemployment and its causes, consequences and solutions are ambivalent.
3. Governments pursue policies and programs that are seen to be politically acceptable to the electorate and which are consistent with their ideological and economic assumptions.
4. Existing policies and programs are not adequate to change meaningfully the unemployment situation and reduce substantially the number of unemployed.
5. The solution to unemployment depends on integrated, systematic and comprehensive manpower and economic planning, which does not exist in Australia.
6. It is possible to solve the unemployment issue provided all sectors of the community are involved in its resolution.

### Employment Strategies

Having established a set of values, the next step is to identify a series of employment strategies. The four strategies which have been identified are: the use of macro-economic policies which increase employment; an improvement in the efficiency of the workforce; job creation; and employment redistribution.

These employment strategies are not necessarily incompatible. Moreover, each of them can serve several different ends, and their nature and scope can differ significantly. Employment redistribution, for instance, can be narrowly or broadly based. It can narrowly focus on redistributing jobs away from adults and the aged towards youth, or it can broadly focus on redistributing available job opportunities by overall reduction in working hours.

The decision as to which strategy or mix of strategies is to be used will depend on various factors, including the traditional role of government in relation to the economy, the ideology of the particular political party in government, the actions and demands of interest groups and the economic situation. It is also important to understand that these strategic decisions are made in a conceptual, political, economic and cultural context which is the outcome of time, history and tradition. This environmental context conditions and defines reality and hence the boundaries of strategies, policies and programs.

A reality recognised by this report is that manpower programs alone will not resolve unemployment. Manpower programs are defined as programs which are directed at enhancing, facilitating, maintaining and enabling the employment of people in paid jobs. The effectiveness, relevance and significance of manpower programs depends on prevailing economic conditions,

assumptions, policies and ideologies. Hence, macro-economic strategies assume an over-riding significance compared with the other identified strategies.

Between 1945 and 1975, Australia generally experienced a stable, macro-economic environment of full or near full employment and a high and increasing level of aggregate demand for goods and services. Since 1975, Australia has experienced high unemployment of a structural nature, and the old policies, strategies and programs are no longer appropriate. To meet this new situation, new policies, new strategies and new programs are needed.

In a situation of high unemployment, where existing policies and programs are based on outdated assumptions, a government has three broad options.

The first option is to attempt to maximise employment opportunities and minimise unemployment through increased government intervention in the economy. This could include the introduction of large-scale job creation programs in the public sector and substantial increases in spending in the public sector.

The second option is non-interventionist. It attempts to maximise employment opportunities by decreasing government intervention.

The third option is to attempt to balance the perceived costs of too much or too little government intervention. This could include the introduction of a selective job creation program.

Underlying the present debate about appropriate employment strategies for Australia is a more profound dispute about the role of the State in a private enterprise economy and the relationship which should exist between the private sector and the public sector.

Government intervention is generally regarded with suspicion by the private sector, which takes the view that an increase in the level of aggregate demand should come through Government policies directed at increasing spending in and by the private sector.

While examining the validity and logic of the private sector's arguments, the political, economic and psychological power of the private sector must also be taken into account. The private sector employs 75 percent of the labour force, and its criticisms of government policies cannot be lightly dismissed.

The present Government and its advisors tend to agree with the private sector's general philosophy, and argue that the public service is too large, is competing with the private sector for resources and is thus impairing incentive and efficiency within private enterprise. It is also argued that high unemployment, low economic growth, and high inflation are partly attributable to the rapid growth of the public sector and increased public expenditure, and that taxes have reached a level which is harming both individual and community incentive efficiency.

The alternative interventionist view is that in a situation of high unemployment, government should stimulate public sector activity in socially useful areas, such as health, housing, education, social welfare, urban renewal and decentralisation. It is argued that schemes which are specifically designed to create jobs for the unemployed and add to the overall stock of jobs in the community should be established, and that the creation of jobs in the public sector will increase the need for private sector employment. For example, the encouragement of public sector capital activity can create jobs in the construction industry. Furthermore, it is argued that increasing the income levels of low income workers, pensioners and beneficiaries will stimulate the consumption of goods and services.

Supporters of the interventionist philosophy do not accept the view that an increase in public expenditure can only take place at the expense of potential growth in the private sector.

The OECD's McCracken Committee states that there is no absolute level at which government should aim to maintain the public sector and that the level of maintenance in particular countries reflects national customs and institutions.<sup>5</sup> To a large extent, then, the level of public expenditure is dependent on the perceived willingness of the public to bear the cost of services.

Supporters of the interventionist view also argue the need for an active manpower policy, involving a comprehensive mix of social and economic policies designed to achieve the maximum utilisation of human resources. The extension of this argument is that if manpower policy is to be effective, it must be integrated with economic planning.

Given the 'laissez-faire' nature of the Government's ideology and economic policies, as well as its commitment to a diminution in the role of the public sector, it is not surprising that Australia's existing manpower programs are neither systematic nor integrated within an overall manpower program.

The labour efficiency strategy assumes that, unless labour becomes more efficient, unemployment will continue to exist in the short and/or long term. Such a strategy, however, depends on the availability of jobs for the unemployed. This strategy fails if:

- \* the available jobs are inconsistent with the specific skill efficiency of the unemployed labour force;

- \* there is a continuing general decline in the total number of jobs and a specific decline in low-skilled jobs;
- \* some workers who have left the labour force re-enter it when additional jobs become available and compete with the officially registered unemployed for these jobs;
- \* the availability of jobs fluctuates;
- \* the time period between unemployment and employment is too long;
- \* the geographic locations of the available jobs and the unemployed labour force are at variance;
- \* variations in demand for particular skills in particular localities are ad hoc and inconsistent.

A common response to the failure of current efficiency-oriented manpower programs has been to seek a panacea - the rehabilitation of the education system. For example, employers' associations often express the view that schools do not adequately prepare young people for the demands of the work situation, that greater emphasis should be placed on the teaching of basic literacy and numeracy, and that education should become more vocationally oriented, (see Appendix C).

But if improving the efficiency of labour through manpower programs does not guarantee employment, why should education programs based on the same labour efficiency assumption produce different and better results?

There are two possible interdependent explanations:



- \* That the provision of appropriate life and work skills can be carried out more systematically and effectively within the education system – particularly over a period of years – than through manpower programs, and that labour would, therefore, become more efficient and hence more attractive to employers.
- \* That a significant factor in the level of unemployment is the existence of the equivalent of an employers' strike – a deliberate withdrawal of employment opportunities by employers simply because they are dissatisfied with the efficiency of labour.

Very little hard evidence exists to support these assumptions.

The employment redistribution approach is based on the acceptance of a continuing situation of job shortage. It is concerned with the distribution of work and workers, and with an adequate and reasonable sharing out of the available work. Many countries are developing or considering programs to redistribute work through such measures as optional early retirement; increased part-time work and job sharing; decreased working hours; limiting shift work and overtime; and the granting of substantial periods of paid study leave to all workers.

Optional early retirement, for example, is aimed at accelerating the retirement of older workers from the workforce by the provision of incentives. However, the problems associated with early retirement are that:

- \* it encourages an expectation that older workers will, and should, retire to make way for young people;

- \* many older workers will fall into poverty on retirement;
- \* the cost to the government, in terms of additional pension payments and decreased taxation revenue, would be substantial;
- \* very few alternative activities are available for retired workers;
- \* it would result in an inflation of life assurance and superannuation premiums.

Another form of work sharing is to spread the supply of available work by expanding part-time work opportunities. In a situation of high unemployment, there are difficulties in encouraging part-time work and they include the following factors:

- \* part-time workers are amongst the lowest paid workers in the workforce;
- \* part-time workers do not enjoy the same conditions and rights as full-time workers;
- \* part-time workers do not have the same job security as full-time workers;
- \* the availability of part-time work could lead to the expectation that the unemployed should accept part-time work;
- \* unemployed people who accept part-time jobs will not necessarily be able to move on to full-time jobs;
- \* not all jobs can be shared because of the way they are organised or because there is no one with the relevant skills;

- \* part-time work means extra workers which involves extra recruitment, training, payroll tax and workers' compensation costs to employers;
- \* many full-time workers cannot financially afford to become part-time workers.

In a situation of high and increasing unemployment, work sharing inevitably leads to disproportionate sharing of work and those expected to share work are invariably those least able to – the unskilled and semi-skilled workers on low wages. In contrast, professional and skilled workers are able to sustain a drop in wages without substantially affecting their standard of living.

The job creation strategy is perhaps the most controversial strategy. A job is created when: it results in the employment of labour which would otherwise not be employed either now, or in the projected future; the labour employed does not substitute for other labour; the job is not permanently subsidised; the employment is desirable, permanent and long-term.

There are five broad and inter-related views about job creation:

1. The 'laissez-faire' view is that job creation should occur primarily in the private sector, and that the deliberate creation of jobs in the public sector as an employment strategy is both inadvisable and unnecessary. The belief is that some growth in the public sector may be necessary, but not to the extent that it leads to the diversion of resources and investment away from the private sector.

2. The mixed-economy view is that, while job creation should primarily and desirably occur in the private sector, this is not always possible. It is necessary, therefore, for the State to intervene and create jobs primarily in the private, but also in the public sector. Subsidies to the private sector are a favoured means of helping private enterprise to relocate, to establish, to retain and to hire workers. Selective job creation schemes in the public sector are reluctantly advocated.
3. The collectivist view is that job creation is the responsibility of the State. Proponents of this view favour enlargement of the public sector, increased public expenditure, and substantial job creation schemes in the public sector which result in long-term employment.
4. The transcendent view is that job creation is not necessary, because it is based on the false assumption that people should work. Proponents of this view favour a change in community attitudes and the introduction of a guaranteed income to break the nexus between jobs and income.
5. The organic view is that there must be fundamental cultural, economic and political changes to society. The issue of job creation is important to the extent that it hinders or helps a fundamental transformation of society. Creating jobs just for the sake of creating jobs is socially destructive. The need is to activate

social change processes that will lead to an eventual transformation of society. Job creation programs, then, derive significance from their social change potential. They are a means to an end.

The next step in the construction of a framework for analysis is to examine existing manpower programs in order to establish the values, assumptions and strategies which are reflected and reinforced. To do this, a series of planning principles have been established in a later section. These principles are interdependent with the values, assumptions and strategies set down in this report.

This framework for analysis enables those who wish to use it to examine the gap which exists between the theory and practice of Australia's present manpower programs.

In this context, the word 'theory' relates to the stated aims and objectives of programs, or to the regulations and guidelines which are supposed to determine what actually happens.

There are three possible reasons for the existence of discrepancies between theory and practice. The first is that the theory is correct, but the practice is deficient, the second is that the theory is incorrect or poorly based, but the practice overcomes the deficiencies in the theory, and the third is that the practice is not based on the stated theory at all, but reflects instead another 'unofficial' theory.

Many of Australia's manpower programs fall into the third category, in that they are officially classified as 'labour efficiency' programs, but are aimed, in practice, at labour substitution, by helping some unemployed people to compete effectively against other unemployed people.

Such programs accept the inevitability of unemployment and tend to provide help for the 'deserving' young unemployed at the cost of the 'undeserving' adult unemployed. The theory and practice gap between the promise and performance of these programs would be dramatically reduced if the Government admitted that, at best, existing labour efficiency programs promote labour substitution.

While the existence of some gap between theory and practice is inevitable, it is believed to be essential that it be kept as narrow as possible through an ongoing process of redefining theory in the light of practice. However, the need to reconcile theory and practice has not been universally accepted.

Some groups involved in the unemployment debate argue that, despite the restrictions of theory, worthwhile work is being achieved at the practical level, and imply that criticism of theory, no matter how valid, may destroy a program which, in practice, can work quite usefully at overcoming individual employment problems.

This report argues the need for co-ordination, communication and national planning based on a realistic and honest assessment of the unemployment situation and its consequences. The Brotherhood believes that little can be gained in the long term by defensive support of programs which either do not have realistic objectives based on such an understanding, or which have stated objectives which are impossible to achieve because of the nature of their written guidelines or regulations. A non-critical attitude, together with a disregard of the guidelines or regulations of a particular program, is unrealistic because it effectively reduces public debate on the real needs of the unemployed and causes a de facto trade-off situation – the very people who are aware of the needs of all the unemployed settle for minor concessions for the small number of unemployed people

with whom they are working and do not effectively challenge the underlying problems of the program. Such an attitude is counter-productive because it recognises that the conceptual basis of such programs is inadequate, but does nothing to change it; significant changes then can occur only at the whim of politicians and administrators.

This discussion of types of employment strategies is followed by an outline of the ten most important planning principles for manpower programs and, in a later section of the report, Australia's manpower programs are individually assessed against them. This analysis indicates not only the extent to which programs and policies need to change, but also the underlying extent to which the theory of such programs needs to change.

TABLE 1:            EMPLOYMENT STRATEGIES: AIMS AND EFFECTS

Employment Strategy	Aim	Examples	Problems
Macro-economic:	Economic growth Increase demand - assumes not enough jobs through general stimulus	Lower interest rates. Decreased direct and indirect taxes. Submissions to the Arbitration Commission on wages. Price control.	Could be long-term slow. Social costs to unemployed and community. Environmental and resource constraints. No immediate job creation.
Job Creation:	Increase employment opportunities through specific stimulus. Assumes not enough jobs.	RED, Canada Works, Young Canada. Co-operatives. Small business enterprises. Wage subsidies.	Financing and political opposition to increases in Government expenditure. Private enterprise opposition to public sector job creation.
Employment Redistribution:	Sharing and spreading available work and/or jobs. Assumes not enough jobs.	Optional earlier retirement. Reduced working hours. Part-time work. Limiting shift work and overtime.	Immediate cost to employers and political acceptability. Could hurt those most in need. Under-employment. Problem of earlier poverty.
Labour Efficiency:	Increase the efficiency and quality of labour and therefore increase the acceptability and demand for labour. Productivity. Assumes enough jobs.	NEAT, EPUY, CYSS. Relocation assistance. Vocational guidance. Training.	Does not overcome persistent job shortage. Depends on the competitiveness of the market. Substitution - increases demand for particular workers.



### Ten Principles for Planning and Implementation of Manpower Programs

Based on the values and policy issues outlined above, a number of planning principles have been defined to assist in the analysis of existing manpower programs, and to provide guidelines for the establishment of new programs. While the statement of values, and the policy analysis used for this report, spell out some of the theoretical considerations behind manpower programs, more precise consideration should be given to the factors which should guide planning and implementation. At no point can these planning principles stand independently of difficult and contentious political issues and assumptions, but any subsequent analysis and proposals would be lacking if these critical principles were not defined. In fact one of the major difficulties facing those who attempt to assess existing manpower programs is the absence of clear and coherent policy statements on the one hand, and planning principles used in their implementation on the other. Policy analysis of Australian manpower programs suggests confusion, inconsistency and implementation based on dubious assumptions, partly because of the failure to explicate the policy base and planning principles used - if any were used at all.

Planning principles apply at two levels - the definition and development of broad programs, and the implementation of specific projects. The following are proposed for consideration, and serve as the basis of the subsequent analysis of manpower programs in Australia. It is suggested that these principles are fundamental to the achievement of broad policy goals, and they are consistent with the values and policies outlined above.

The first and understandable reaction to any consideration of planning principles is to question their feasibility. This report would argue the converse and ask the question - what is the result of introducing manpower programs in the absence of clear policy goals and defined planning principles?

1. Manpower programs should be nationally planned and manpower projects should be locally controlled.

The development and implementation of manpower programs depends upon the clear definition of the essential tasks and responsibilities of national agencies on the one hand, and the local auspice for particular projects on the other.

National planning of programs involves:

Guidelines	The development of broadly based program guidelines which are consistent with the policy goals and the planning principles elaborated in this report.
National Mechanisms for Review	The establishment of mechanisms for the monitoring, evaluation, and review of all programs, including a capacity to assess manpower programs in the context of particular policy goals, and economic policies in general.
National Mechanisms for Future Planning	The establishment of mechanisms for on-going planning and research in the context of national development in the economy, labour market demand and technological change. Capacity to utilise national review of manpower programs in the planning process.

Mechanisms to Establish Working Relationships	The establishment of co-operative and supporting working relationships with other national agencies, state and local governments, to ensure that local projects can then establish sound working relationships at the level of implementation.
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Local control of projects involves:

Local Design	The capacity of the management and auspices of local projects to design their own activities, within the broad national guidelines.
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Local Administration	The day-to-day administration of local projects should be controlled by local management. National or state agency involvement in administration should be minimal and where required be specified in the guidelines.
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Local Co-ordination	The management of local projects should be responsible for local co-ordination, and working relationships with relevant organisations and other projects.
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Local Review and Project Modification	The management of local projects should be responsible for project monitoring and review, to allow the adaptation of the project to the needs of participants and changes in local conditions.
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#### Comment

While individual projects should be administered locally, and as autonomously as possible, the national responsibilities are critical in order to maintain oversight of the development of programs in the context

of national issues. Further, the national tasks allow efficient communication of ideas, information and evaluation findings, so that individual projects can benefit from developments occurring across the country. In this way maximum gains can be made from the achievements and failures of individual projects.

Local control on the other hand allows the development of projects flexible enough to meet local needs, and imaginative enough to meet the needs of participants. Locally controlled projects are able to gain good co-operation with local agencies and organisations, provide better access for the unemployed, and facilitate the active contribution of local people and participants in the development and conduct of the programs. Localism generally ensures a higher degree of co-operation, and allows imaginative use of many resources often unavailable to programs not subject to local control.

2. Manpower programs should be planned in conjunction with other programs and related services, to ensure comprehensive coverage of complex functions.

In view of the diversity and complexity of functions required of manpower programs, they should:

Variety of Functions	Be planned to include as many different functions as feasible, in order to reduce fragmentation, maximise efficient use of resources, and enhance possibilities of effective outcomes.
Complement Other Programs	Be planned in conjunction with programs with other functions, to ensure that necessary functions are carried out, and that programs complement rather than conflict with each other.

Local projects should:

Multi-functional	Undertake as many functions as are locally feasible, within the guidelines of the particular program, in order to meet the diverse needs of participants.
Maximise Continuity	Establish working relationships with other projects in order to maximise the continuity of services required by participants, and in order to meet changing needs over periods of time.

#### Comment

Manpower programs have a wide variety of functions including education, pre-training, work experience, job creation, job placement, support, counselling, training and re-training. It is rare for any one program to cover all these functions - but no program should be planned in isolation from other manpower programs, or from the range of relevant services required. Consequently each program should cover specified functions, and have clearly defined relationships with other programs undertaking different functions. Only if this principle is followed will programs complement each other, and their specific projects operate co-operatively and contiguously, providing for the variety of needs of participants. The absence of such comprehensive planning means fragmentation at the project level, resulting in training programs for non-existent jobs, work experience for non-existent jobs, counselling without training and job placement services and so on. The current lack of comprehensive planning and coverage of the diverse functions of manpower programs has resulted not only in the reduced effectiveness of specific projects, but in some cases experiences which are dysfunctional for participants. Single problem, single solution programs largely fail.

3. Manpower projects should be developed and funded for a guaranteed period.

Effective manpower projects take time to develop and become effective. Consequently, funding systems should:

Guaranteed Period	Provide certainty for each project in the form of an appropriate guaranteed funding period - based on the nature and functions of the project, the needs it is designed to meet, and the time required for participants to complete the particular and individual goals set.
Local Funding Structures	Use to maximum extent local funding structures, such as local government or other appropriate authorities, to allow the development of projects with local confidence and support.
Maximum Local Control of Funds	Allow projects a high degree of control of the funds granted, and allow flexibility so that funds may be redirected to different items of expenditure, as the management of projects review and assess their local priorities.

Comment

Short-term, ad hoc and uncertain funding is not conducive to effective manpower effort. Projects require a guaranteed period of support and local control of expenditure in order to effectively develop the working relationships, continuity of service and experience required.

4. Manpower projects should be planned to encourage and facilitate the participation of the local community and project participation.

Unemployment is a national problem causing widespread community concern. Effective solutions require community support. Consequently manpower programs should:

Community Participation	Be planned and implemented with clear mechanisms for the active participation of community representatives in their day-to-day management and in the determination of objectives, setting of priorities, and monitoring effectiveness.
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Participants' Involvement	Be implemented at local level with mechanisms allowing the participants to contribute and participate in the administration, review and evaluation of their projects.
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#### Comment

The participation of the local community and participants in manpower projects is critical to their effectiveness. So far little is known about the views of either group, yet together they play a significant role in determining whether projects will meet their objectives.

Effective mechanisms can be developed to facilitate this participation, and some local projects have already demonstrated both the possibility and value of participation by both community and participants. Such mechanisms not only provide community input and support for individual projects, but also provide a channel for the community to those responsible for national planning. As already indicated future planning of programs should be based in part on the experience of individual projects.

Manpower programs planned and implemented in isolation from the community will lack support. National agencies should consult projects and participants in the course of planning, and maximise the value of this process.

5. Manpower projects should have defined objectives, and their effectiveness should be reviewed.

All manpower projects should:

Objectives	Have clearly defined objectives which are practical, realistic, publicly available and sufficiently specified to allow assessment. Care should be taken to avoid objectives which claim more than a project can feasibly achieve, or which create expectations which cannot be fulfilled.
Mechanisms for Evaluation	Have defined mechanisms which allow the monitoring and evaluation of the project, and an assessment of its effectiveness according to its objectives.
Participation in Evaluation	Allow community representatives and participants to contribute to and participate in project evaluation.
Independent Research Access	Facilitate access for evaluation purposes of independent research agencies, as well as government departments.
Publish Results	Have the mechanisms and the funds to publish the results of such evaluations so that the information is available beyond the project management and the funding department.



Comment

The planning and design of manpower programs should automatically build in the capacity for evaluation, including the definition of objectives, the collation and storage of information, and the assessment of outcomes. At the present time there appears to be no national capacity to learn from existing programs or individual projects and the few evaluations which have taken place are not publicly available. As a consequence vast amounts of relevant information have been lost, and little progress made in further program planning.

The definition of objectives is a crucial principle of planning, especially in view of the extravagant claims that can be made on behalf of programs and projects. It is important that the public and participants are realistically aware of what programs and projects can do, and what they cannot do.

6. Manpower programs should maximise permanent employment and create additional jobs.

One of the principal goals of all manpower programs is to contribute to the enhanced employment opportunities of participants. Consequently:

Permanent Employment	Manpower programs and projects should facilitate the permanent employment of participants, and the objectives of projects and the expectations for participants should be directed to this final result.
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Additional Job Opportunities Not Substitution	Manpower programs and projects should add to the number of work opportunities, and provision should be made to prevent substitution for existing jobs or the replacement of employed workers by participants in manpower programs.
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Comment

Manpower programs and projects which create temporary jobs, and/or allow retrenchment or abolition of existing jobs are dysfunctional, creating the illusion of short-term gains, at the expense of workers whose existing and future work opportunities may, in fact, be diminished. Manpower programs with job creation or work experience functions should be creating additional work, not helping some workers to the disadvantage of others.

7. Manpower programs should be based upon labour market needs and demands.

Participants in manpower projects must know their labour and skills will be sought. Preparation for redundancy is a waste of resources and destructive for all concerned.

Oriented to Future Jobs	Manpower programs should be planned on the basis of the best information available on labour demand, and future job opportunities, and should avoid training, re-training, job creation and work experience for and in jobs which are known to be in short supply, or which will become largely redundant.
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New  
Careers

Manpower programs are in a unique position, and have particular opportunities to develop new and creative employment opportunities, and to initiate and test new careers. Manpower programs should facilitate the opening up of new fields of work.

Comment

Currently some Australian manpower programs are largely oriented to training projects in skills which are over supplied, to work experience projects in jobs which are declining, and to job creation projects in areas potentially affected by technological change. Such short-term planning involves wastage of resources, and is destructive to participants who find their expectations of future employment cannot be met. Manpower programs require the best possible projections on future demand, and all planning should be based on these projections.

8. Manpower programs and projects should emphasise project quality and participant satisfaction.

The standards of manpower programs will largely dictate their outcomes. Consequently:

Program  
Standards

Manpower programs should be planned and projects implemented in order to enhance the dignity and self-esteem of participants, by the provision of good facilities, conditions, equipment, support services and competent staff.

Participant Recognition	Manpower programs should make provision for the recognition of participants' achievements, both tangible and intangible, in order to ensure a positive preparation for future jobs.
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Comment

Programs planned without defined standards, and projects implemented in second rate conditions and with second rate facilities, create expectations for a second rate performance. Participants who already feel a sense of failure in the field of work, require experiences which are positive, rewarding and satisfying. Standards and recognition are two principles which facilitate a positive orientation by participants. Manpower programs are a vital part of the nation's future development, and constitute a critical experience for participants. Consequently those responsible for their planning, the staff who run the projects and the participants, should be given the esteem and recognition warranted in the tasks they undertake.

9. Manpower programs should be for volunteers, not conscripts.

Manpower programs should be based upon:

Voluntary Participation	Voluntary participation rather than conscription, including that form of conscription based on the fear of loss of unemployment benefit.
Choice of Program	The provision of a range of options of projects, to allow participants to make some choice about their own future, interests and satisfaction.

Access	The maximum ease of access for all unemployed, giving recognition to problems of travel, family responsibilities and lack of financial resources available to most participants.
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Comment

Voluntary manpower programs do not stigmatise participants or cause family disruption. They do encourage participation and commitment, and facilitate positive rather than negative attitudes to work. Programs based on conscription generally have the opposite effects.

10. Manpower programs should be available to all workers, with priority to the unemployed, and provision should be made to discriminate positively for the disadvantaged unemployed.

Every effort must be made to develop programs which neither discriminate against nor stigmatise participants. Consequently:

Equal Opportunity	All manpower programs should be planned and projects implemented in a manner which equalises the opportunity of all workers, employed and unemployed, who wish to participate.
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Positive Discrimination	In order to equalise opportunity, particularly in the event of limited opportunities, and to prevent the squeezing out of certain groups, manpower programs should give priority to the unemployed, and positively discriminate in favour of workers with special and diverse needs.
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Comment

Manpower programs should have the capacity to meet diverse needs, in order to equalise the opportunities available to the unemployed. Projects should not be established for special groups, but rather each project should have the capacity to accept a certain number of participants with special needs. This approach avoids the problem of stigmatised and second rate projects, while guaranteeing access to unemployed workers who often find it difficult to gain entry to projects.

References and Notes

1. For discussions on the importance of value clarification:  
Myrdal, Gunnar, Objectivity in the Development of Economic Theory, New York, 1969.
2. It is believed that an adequate income is 120 per cent of the poverty line. For a discussion on the right to income irrespective of work:  
Griffiths, David, Whither Work, Preston Institute of Technology, 1977.
3. The availability of 'work' could be maximised through measures such as job creation and work sharing. Both raise highly contentious issues that require careful consideration and debate, for example: 'Should and could work be shared by phasing out penalty rates?' If working hours were reduced to spread the available work should there be a proportionate reduction in wages?
4. For example, access to the best educational, training, re-training, relocation and counselling facilities to enable workers to obtain necessary skills consistent with their abilities and interests.
5. McCracken, Paul and others, Towards Full Employment and Price Stability, a report to the OECD by a group of independent experts, Paris, OECD, June 1977.





#### 4. MANPOWER PROGRAMS IN AUSTRALIA

##### An Overview of Existing Programs - the Economic, Political and Educational Context

In analysing existing manpower programs it is important to identify the values, assumptions, employment strategies and planning principles that these programs reflect and reinforce. It is extremely difficult to carry out such an analysis of Australian manpower programs, because of the absence of a manpower policy, which would place and integrate programs within an explicit context. Nevertheless, while many of the values, assumptions, strategies and principles which underlie Australia's manpower programs may be implicit, rather than explicit, their nature may become evident through a careful analysis of both the programs themselves, and of the political, economic, and educational contexts within which they operate. To a large extent, the objectives and achievements of manpower programs will be predetermined by these contexts.

Australian governments adhere to the belief that the role of the public must remain subservient to that of the private sector, and that the market's economic well-being is best served by allowing market forces to operate freely.

During periods of high economic growth and full employment, the existence of this underlying economic philosophy tends to be hidden, and even denied. However, its pervasive influence on economic and political debate in Australia becomes more apparent during periods of economic crisis.

There is a belief that the private sector is infinitely flexible, and will adjust automatically to changing economic forces. This belief tends to lead to the conclusion that economic crises occur when the private sector is hindered in its efforts to 'adjust' by excessive government and public sector intervention in the operation of market forces.

Thus, there is a widespread belief throughout the community that Australia's present economic crisis can be solved by freeing the private sector from these forces of intervention by reducing the size and role of the public sector, by lowering tax rates and hence the level of public expenditure, and by allowing wage rates to fall to a 'natural' level.

Opposed to this traditional economic philosophy is the belief that Australia's economic problems can only be solved by the introduction of long-term economic and manpower planning.

In 1974 an Australian Interdepartmental Mission argued that manpower programs 'must be directed at more than securing and maintaining' full employment because 'unemployment will eventuate from time to time because of measures taken by government or by the private sector or lack of action. There will be pockets of unemployment even in times of overall full employment.' Manpower programs 'should be capable of removing the fear of unemployment'. The unemployed should 'not be left to languish, supported by the state, until a change in economic circumstances'. Instead, they should 'be able to turn to a range of measures to guide them into, or prepare them for, work opportunities'.<sup>1</sup>

To be effective, manpower programs must exist within a systematic and integrated manpower policy. While Australia does have manpower programs, it does not have a manpower policy.

The Victorian Employers' Federation (VEF) has called on the Australian Government to develop a national manpower planning policy. The VEF argues that such a policy would ensure that the present high level of unemployment is not repeated. The VEF points out that Australia has many unskilled and semi-skilled people looking for work, and many qualified people looking for jobs. The VEF states that Australia is one of the few developed countries which does not use manpower planning.<sup>2</sup>

The Victorian Chamber of Manufacturers has warned that Australia has reached a crisis in training of skilled tradesmen,<sup>3</sup> and the Director of the Central Industrial Secretariat, George Polites, is critical of Government policies to date:

For far too long manpower in this country has been looked at in the most simplistic terms of the forecasting of labour supply and demand and the selection of simple alternative courses of action designed to achieve a balance between these two.<sup>4</sup>

He argues that effective national manpower planning and policy-making involves a host of social, economic and political issues which have an impact on virtually every aspect of Australian society. He argues that the success of an active manpower policy depends on:

... the effective integration and co-ordination of the totality of economic policies, plus the goodwill of governments, employers, trade unions and educationalists ... an active manpower policy must be looked at in a broad context. It must involve the application of a comprehensive mix of social and economic policies designed to achieve the maximum utilisation of the nation's human resources.<sup>5</sup>

However, while private enterprise spokesmen appear to accept the need for manpower planning, they have not accepted the argument that such planning cannot be effective unless it is integrated into a process of

economic planning. Moreover, even given its acceptance of the concept of manpower planning, private enterprise is still opposed to the introduction of public sector job creation programs, which, it believes, divert resources from the private sector into the public sector and, therefore, hinder economic recovery.

Laissez-faire economic policy produces administrative policy which is also laissez-faire. Consequently, programs and policies are often introduced by DEYA without any communication with interested groups; where consultation does take place it is limited in scope by pre-existing policies and frameworks. Such was the case with the recently announced Voluntary Community Services Scheme, where voluntary organisations were asked for comments on the scheme when the most comprehensive aspects were already decided. Another example was the introduction of the new Community Youth Support Scheme (CYSS) guidelines in July 1978 without any consultation with interested groups, particularly project officers. Again, DEYA introduced new guidelines for the conditions of funding for 'Skills in Short Supply' courses, but in Victoria did not consult the two major interested parties - the Technical and Further Education System (TAFE) and the Industries Training Commission (ITC).<sup>6</sup> Finally, exclusionary action has been taken to squeeze certain categories of the disadvantaged out of programs. According to DEYA, the responsibility for helping and funding these groups lies with other agencies, notably the State Governments and local communities. Yet no attempt has been made by DEYA to establish whether these groups have the resources to carry out programs.

Australia's manpower programs, therefore, exist in a context of active resistance to both economic planning and increased public expenditure.

Such programs are, of necessity, short-term and stop-gap in nature, because they are dependent on the economic policy of the Government at any given time.

Furthermore, they are directed towards little more than improving the efficiency and employability of labour in the expectation of economic recovery, because any attempts to improve demand for labour which require public expenditure are seen as inflationary.

A good starting point for a brief review of the educational context of Australian manpower programs is the following statement in the report of the Working Party on the Transition from Secondary Education to Employment. (For further notes see Appendix C).

The education systems have no control over the labour market situation and they cannot by themselves correct the social problems which arise from unemployment or underemployment caused by economic policy and circumstances.<sup>7</sup>

The ability of the workforce to avail itself of existing employment opportunities is largely dependent on the extent to which it is equipped with, firstly, those vocational skills which are in demand and, secondly, the personal skills which are needed to cope effectively in a work situation. This is particularly pertinent when it is realised that many programs are primarily concerned with providing unemployed people with job and life skills which were not provided by the education system. In this context manpower programs patch up the deficiencies of the education system.

In Australia the lack of a coherent manpower policy has led to a situation in which there is disagreement about the authority or authorities which should bear the responsibility for providing the workforce with vocational and personal skills.

More particularly, the respective roles of the major educational and training authorities and that of the manpower authority itself have not been defined, and the resultant confusion appears to have been exacerbated by a lack of communication between the educational and training authorities and DEYA.

It is beyond the scope of this report to enter into a discussion of the appropriate role of educational and training authorities with respect to manpower planning. Hopefully, the publication of the report of the Williams Inquiry will lead to a resolution of this question.

Nevertheless, it is important to understand the ways in which existing manpower programs are being affected by the attitudes and activities of the major educational and training authorities, and the DEYA.

For example, the Community Youth Support Scheme, the National Employment and Training Scheme, and the Education Program for Unemployed Youth are involved in providing young people with remedial education, basic work experience, job seeking and work skills, which, it might be argued, are more appropriately the responsibility of the secondary education system. In fact, the secondary school system does appear to be slowly moving towards taking a more active role in the provision of basic career-related education, but there is no indication that either the Education Department or DEYA are attempting to co-ordinate their activities in this area.

At the post secondary level Victoria's Technical and Further Education (TAFE) system plays a central role in the delivery of government training programs, and it has been DEYA policy over the past few years to attempt to involve the TAFE colleges more directly in this area of activity. However, despite TAFE's capacity for flexibility and responsiveness, its ability

and its willingness to become more deeply involved in programs outside the area of formal credentialling are limited by several factors. This point was made very clearly by the Director of Technical Education when commenting on TAFE's refusal to take over a vocational training and social skills program conducted under NEAT funding. The Director stated:

TAFE has neither the authority nor the resources to take over a large scale commitment to an outside organisation.<sup>8</sup>

Nevertheless, there are indications that DEYA is engaged in a process of unilaterally divesting itself of those activities which it wants TAFE and other institutions, such as the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs and Social Welfare, to assume, instead of engaging in constructive communications with these institutions so that respective roles and responsibilities can be defined.

The activities of the Industrial Training Commission (ITC) in the vocational training area demonstrate even more clearly the consequences of the lack of a manpower policy.

The main role of the ITC is the promotion and regulation of apprenticeship. However, it has become involved, over the past two years, in the determination of skill shortages in industry, and the design of programs, in conjunction with TAFE, to overcome these shortages. While the ostensible aim of this involvement is to improve the skill level in industry, there are also indications that the ITC sees itself as taking on a wider responsibility for the young unemployed, and that this is a result of the ITC's dissatisfaction with, firstly, the adequacy of DEYA action in attempting to determine skills shortages, secondly, the education system's failure to provide sufficient vocational skills in the school situation and, thirdly, the Government's failure to deal effectively with youth unemployment.



The ITC's decision to move into the manpower planning field reflects, not only dissatisfaction with the activities of DEYA, but also a fundamental disagreement with DEYA's belief that industry itself must bear the responsibility for providing basic industry training.

The ITC has constantly argued that education and training systems must become more involved in providing industry with workers with relevant skills. In the past, the ITC has been actively involved in pressing for a higher level of subsidy to those employers who employ apprentices, and it has now extended this argument to include the need for a greater influx of government finance into the training of semi-skilled workers.

However, despite the emergence of the ITC as a major institution concerned with youth unemployment little communication between ITC and DEYA appears to have taken place.

In summary, DEYA appears to be withdrawing from its planning responsibilities in the educational/training field, in much the same way as it has divested itself of responsibility in the welfare area. The inevitable result of such an attitude is dissipation of effort, and a return to precisely that state of confusion and fragmentation which existed in the manpower planning field prior to the introduction of the National Employment and Training Scheme (NEAT) in 1972.



# TABLE 2: Commonwealth Manpower Programs

## Other Schemes

NEAT (National Employment and Training Systems excluding SYETP) (a)	NEAT (Special Courses for Disadvantaged Groups)	NEAT (Skills in Short Supply Courses) (c)	RAS (Relocation Assistance Scheme)	FARES ASSISTANCE SCHEME	CRAFT (Commonwealth Rebate for Apprentice Full- time Training) (f)
October 1974 (b)	Late 1976	1977 (d)	October 1976	September 1972	January 1977
\$37.8m	Not known, absorbed in NEAT budget.	Not known, absorbed in NEAT budget.	\$0.7m	\$0.62m	\$15.8m
\$42m	As above.	As above.	\$1.2m	\$0.84m	\$38m
Varies. Subsidy for employer for in-plant, allowance to trainees for formal or institut- ional trainees, equip- ment costs for institut- ions in some cases.	Grants to community groups and other organisations to run special courses for groups of disadvantaged unem- ployed on a pilot basis. Allowances for trainees.	Grants to educational institutions to fund courses for pilot programs where other funds are not avail- able. Allowances for trainees as per NEAT.	Financial assistance to relocate place of residence.	(i) Non-refundable assistance through issue of average fare tickets for use on public trans- port from CES office to employers' premises and return to person's home or CES office. Outside metropolitan areas Trav- el Warrants are issued. (ii) Refundable assist- ance as above.	Rebate to employer. Apprentice away-from- home allowance.

People unemployed or at risk of unemployment, registered with CES.

Emphasis on unemployed young people physically or mentally handicapped. These measures currently under review.

Unemployed people registered with the CES. No age limit.

Unemployed or at risk, those unable even with training assistance to obtain a permanent job in usual occupation 'locally', those with a job offer in another area which has been approved by CES, school leavers registered with CES for six months.

Persons who go to employment interviews arranged by CES (but this is not mandatory).  
(i) Non-refundable for persons eligible for unemployment benefit.  
(ii) Refundable for people not eligible for benefit to travel on public transport to an interview where it is difficult for them to meet the cost of fares themselves.

Employers, apprentices.

For duration of training.

Courses vary in duration. Average 4-6 months.

Courses vary in duration. Four weeks to three months.

260 days.

On-the-job training, institution training (full-time or part-time), correspondence course, mix of above.

Varies according to project.

Vocational training courses sometimes combined with work experience.

Removal expenses up to \$750. Re-establishment allowance \$200 plus \$100 for adult dependent and \$50 for each additional dependent. Legal and agents' fees or rental allowance up to \$1000.

Refundable or non-refundable tickets or Travel Warrants.

Technical courses, off-the-job training.

Varies. Range of occupations and professions.

Remedial and compensatory education, basic vocational skills, life and survival skills support.

Metal polishing, bridle, saddle and harness making.

Apprentice toolmaker.

At August 1978 on-job 9053, institutional 4292.

Not known. Incorporated in institutional NEAT figures. Numbers would be small. Estimated 250 at any one time.

Very small, estimated under 100 in ITC courses. Incorporated in institutional NEAT figures.

880 for 12 months ending May 1978.

7,300 persons (non-refundable) 12 months to April 1978.

27,000 last year.

Subsidy to employers - \$56 adult, \$41 juniors. Employers pay on-job trainees award wages. Approximately \$82 for 18+ years, \$51.30 under 18 years plus allowances for dependents similar to unemployment benefit.

Grants to individual projects vary in amount. Trainee allowances 18+ years \$82, under 18 years \$51.30 plus allowances for dependents similar to unemployment benefit.

Usually grant to training organisation. NEAT allowances for trainees.

\$6, \$12 and \$16 per day rebates to employers.

**TABLE 2: Commonwealth Manpower Programs**  
**Youth Oriented Schemes**

	SYETP (Special Youth Employment Training Program) (Part of NEAT)	EPUY (Education Program for Unemployed Youth)	CYSS (Community Youth Support Scheme)	NHYP (NEAT Handicapped Youth Program)
Date of introduction	October 1976	February 1977	November 1976	July 1977
Cost last year	\$47.1m	\$1.5m	\$5.74m	Not known. Absorbed in NEAT budget.
Outlay this year	\$80m	\$3.2m	\$9m	As above
Form of support/ assistance	Subsidy to employer.	Grants to States to run courses. Allowances for trainees.	Grants to organisations. Fares for partici- pants. Partici- pants retain rights to unemployment benefits.	Subsidies to employers to encourage employment of handicapped youth. Assistance also avail- able under NEAT.

Eligibility	Unemployed people, 15-24 years, unemployed for over four months, registered with CES, been away from full-time education for at least four months in past 12 months.	Unemployed people up to 24 years, registered with CES.	Unemployed people up to 25 years, registered with CES.	Unemployed people up to 21 who are physically, intellectually or psychologically handicapped where handicap is not only a barrier to work but also restricts capacity to learn work skills. Evidence of handicap usually required.
Period of training benefit	Four months.	Courses vary, average three months.	As long as unemployed. Not a course. Participants can attend at any time.	Six weeks plus standard subsidy period. Set up by DEYA for training according to the occupation.
Type of training/assistance	On-the-job training.	Classes in maths, written expression, etc., at TAFE institutions.	Maintain job readiness and morale.	On-the-job training/work experience.
Examples of training/activities	Machinist, office assistant.		Job-finding skills, community work, hobbies, work-related skills.	Varies. Range of occupations in semi-skilled or unskilled area.

Numbers of trainees, participants	39,319 at August 1978.	Estimated that 2,000 will participate during 1978/79.	45,000 (estimated) since inception.	Not known, but small. Incorporated in NEAT on-job figures.
Finance (as at February 1979)	\$45 weekly to employers.	For trainees equivalent of unemployment benefit plus \$6 weekly.	Limits not set for grants. For participants unemployment benefit plus a maximum of \$6 per week for travelling expenses.	First six weeks full award wage, thereafter 85% of Male Adult Average Award Wage. Adult \$76.50, 18-20 years \$61.20, under 18 years \$51.00 for the standard period of subsidy for each occupation.

- (a) See also NHYP, NEAT Special Courses, NEAT Skills in Short Supply.
- (b) Various ad hoc schemes existed previously.
- (c) Refers only to courses developed and established by the Industrial Training Commission of Victoria and funded by DEYA.
- (d) Finance has been available for funding of skills courses since the inception of the NEAT scheme in 1974. The ITC involvement has been comparatively recent.
- (e) Not discussed in this report.
- (f) There are a number of other measures of Commonwealth assistance to encourage apprenticeship, i.e. pre-apprenticeship course grants, apprentice redundancy subsidy, etc. Apprenticeships are not restricted to young people; but in practice the majority of apprentices are young.

An Analysis of Existing Programs in terms  
of the Planning Principles

1. Manpower programs should be nationally planned  
and manpower projects should be locally controlled

There is little indication that the range of existing programs represents a consistent national planning strategy. Manpower programs are established, implemented and developed on an ad hoc and fragmented basis. There are inconsistencies within and between program objectives, administrative arrangements and decision making. Programs are imprecisely defined and articulated. Evaluations of programs are confidential to government departments. Delineation of responsibility between the various authorities involved in the provision of manpower measures seems to be achieved more by confrontation and unilateral decision making than by consultation and co-operation.

The thrust of manpower programs is based on assumptions, which are rarely disclosed, about the nature of unemployment and its cure. Programs are rarely redirected, even when the assumptions upon which they are based prove to be incorrect. When CYSS was established in 1976, it was assumed that unemployment was a short-term cyclical phenomenon. CYSS was, therefore, designed as a locally funded program, the aim of which was to support young people through a short period of unemployment.

Despite the fact that it has now been recognised that unemployment is long-term and continuing in nature, no attempt has been made to reassess the role of CYSS in the light of changed economic realities; instead the program has received a further injection of funds but little change in its objectives.

Lack of planning is often the result of the inadequate nature of existing data collection, review and evaluation systems.

Although DEYA has a Manpower Evaluation section, its function is generally limited to evaluating the capacity of particular programs to achieve their specific objectives. No mechanism exists to assess programs in the context of broader policy goals.

Government manpower planners are generally reluctant to allow the devolution of authority or involvement to local level. It is only in recent years that attempts have been made to involve the community in the control and design of local projects, such as the CYSS scheme, some NEAT programs and the Educational Program for Unemployed Youth (EPUY). However, in the case of CYSS, for example, devolution of power to local groups has been accompanied by the imposition of stringent guidelines.

In the case of NEAT, local control has been accompanied by extremely restrictive accountability criteria. There is some evidence that the move to local control has been accompanied by serious misgivings, particularly within DEYA, about the possible consequences of such action. Manpower planners are concerned that devolution of power and authority minimises the control and authority of administrators, with the result that the programs may develop away from centralised goals and objectives.

It is probable that this concern led to the introduction of several clauses in the revised CYSS guidelines which attempted to re-impose central control over projects and project officers. Inter alia, these new guidelines increased the administrative workload of project officers by requesting the compilation of additional records, set down clear rules about the appointment and re-appointment of project officers, including the qualification that appointment was



subject to confirmation by the State CYSS Committee, and laid down controls over the participation of project officers at local committee meetings.<sup>9</sup>

Devolution of control to local project co-ordinators does carry with it the potential for movement away from broad program objectives. However, it is essential that objections to local control, based on the CYSS experience, should take into consideration the fact that the original objectives of the scheme were not precisely defined in terms of outcomes, were not realistically based in terms of the needs of participants, and in theory denied project officers the right to carry out precisely those activities and functions which were necessary if these needs were to be met, and thus made it impossible to set realistic objectives which would produce an attitude of co-operation, rather than confrontation, at the local level. Fortunately, in practice, most CYSS projects ignored and evaded the guidelines so as to assist unemployed people.

In addition to this reluctance to devolve authority to local levels, there is also a tendency for central administrators to attempt to impose control over state administrators. This tendency was exemplified by the recent attempt to have all new proposals for the funding of 'Skills in Short Supply' approved at central office level, a move which was justified as a short-term measure to enable experience to be gained in developing new guidelines, but which can also be interpreted as the reflection of a felt need to control tightly programs to ensure that new policy directions were actually being followed. The current moves by central administrators to unilaterally change and redirect policy and procedures (evidenced by recent changes to NEAT, and SYETP) are the cause of confusion and frustration at State administrative level.

The NEAT, the Special Youth Employment Training Program (SYETP) and the Relocation Assistance Scheme (RAS) are administered and controlled within DEYA. Administration at local level is performed by the Commonwealth Employment Service (CES), the service delivery arm of DEYA. There is little flexibility in the programs, which were not designed to meet local needs, but rather to meet broader objectives of government manpower and economic policy. Local CES offices must administer the assistance uniformly - they cannot bend or change programs to meet the needs of individual cases.

2. Manpower programs should be planned in conjunction with other programs and related services, to ensure comprehensive coverage of complex functions

The experience of manpower programming in Australia is: programs are planned and administered in isolation from one another; programs concentrate on labour efficiency functions without commensurate stimulation of labour demand; where programs do complement each other there are few linking mechanisms between them. This lack of cohesiveness is the inevitable outcome of a philosophical approach that eschews the principle of planning. It is also the result of reactive programs that are established in response to crisis situations.

Current programs are not complementary and have few established links between them. There is, of course, an illusion of linkage through the Commonwealth Employment Service. Theoretically, participants in CYSS, EPUY and NEAT Special Groups projects use the facilities of the CES for employment assistance and, in the case of CYSS, for training, pre-training, vocational guidance, assistance. In practice, however, there is little individual follow-through, either because of workload factors, or the sheer inability of the CES to cope with individualised demands within a limited support structure.

Thus, CYSS provides for young people a support and maintenance program in an unstructured environment which is unrelated to any other manpower program. The program is open ended. Participants attend until they either find a job or the program no longer has meaning. CYSS seems to be treated as a discrete and separate entity by the manpower authorities.

The original planners of CYSS saw the program as complementing other services of DEYA.<sup>11</sup> The internal evaluation of the program stated quite clearly that it did not complement existing services.<sup>12</sup> Rather than broadening the scope and nature of CYSS in the light of this evaluation, the new guidelines for the program simply stated that CYSS complemented the services of an existing range of organisations which provided more broadly based welfare services, and paradoxically placed even greater limits on the range of activities which could be offered.

There is no established links between EPUY and the NEAT Special Groups. In fact, at least for young people, the functions of these programs basically overlap. NEAT 'special' may have a greater employment orientation than EPUY, but its 'graduates' are generally regarded as 'normal' CES applicants at the conclusion of the course. Individual CES officers may put special effort into placement assistance for ex-course members but such assistance is given on an ad hoc basis and not as part of an official policy of program integration.

No guarantee is given to CYSS, EPUY or NEAT participants that at the conclusion of the program they will move into employment or into a complementary program. The absence of a comprehensive job creation program ensures that while the ability of the disadvantaged unemployed to compete in the labour market may have been enhanced, the number of jobs for which they are competing has not increased.

The fate of SYETP participants is similar. While many placements under the scheme lead to permanent employment with the subsidised firm (61%), a large percentage of SYETP participants return to unemployment at the conclusion of the subsidy. While SYETP is purportedly a work experience training program, the choice of training or work experience is very much a function of existing vacancies, rather than of the needs of individual participants. With the exception of a few specific target groups, such as Aborigines and handicapped youth, little attention is paid to comprehensive individualised guidance or career planning. The SYETP program is largely divorced from complementary services.

The linking ingredient for comprehensiveness and complementation is co-ordination of programs. Better co-ordination facilitates: more effective use of the existing limited resources; a better understanding of the problems to be faced; a reduced duplication of effort.

For Australia, a commitment to co-ordination means changes at the level of policy development, administration and program planning. The vocational training assistance offered to Aborigines in NSW provides a valuable model of the co-operation, co-ordination and integration of facilities required for all the unemployed and particularly the disadvantaged.<sup>13</sup>

Four government departments and Aboriginal Hostels Ltd., are involved in the operation of the present NSW scheme:

- \* the Department of Aboriginal Affairs provides funds for instructors, material for courses and the wages of a course co-ordinator;
- \* the NSW Department of TAFE operates the courses and arranges them in conjunction with DEYA:

- \* Aboriginal Hostels Ltd. provides accommodation and some social support at centres throughout NSW for trainees;
- \* the Commonwealth Department of Education is responsible for advising the Department of Aboriginal Affairs on funding in relation to education;
- \* the Department of Employment and Youth Affairs, through the Aboriginal Employment Section, advises TAFE as to the type of courses required and where they should be located. That Department's Vocational Officers also relay the wishes of the Aboriginal community on this matter, assist in the selection of trainees and provide intensive counselling and support for the trainees. The DEYA also funds the trainees under NEAT, and places them in jobs after training.

Ironically, the problems of lack of co-operation and co-ordination can be noted in relation to Aboriginal assistance in other parts of Australia. For example the Report of the Inter-departmental Working Party on Aboriginal Employment describes the situation in the Northern Territory (where no TAFE authority exists) in the following words:

For several years negotiations have been going on between DAA, DEYA and the Department of Education concerning overall responsibility for Aboriginal Vocational Training in the Northern Territory. During that time almost no such training has taken place.<sup>14</sup>

3. Manpower projects should be developed and funded for a guaranteed period

Manpower programs suffer from an uncertainty of funding, particularly those that enlist the involvement of other bodies either at State Government or local level to run local projects or courses.

The arguments in favour of short-term funding are: within a short period of time a project could outlive its usefulness and demonstrate that it is an inappropriate response to the perceived situation; the economic situation could change, indicating a need for different programs; government or community priorities could change.

However, while there is undoubtedly a need for constant review of projects, to improve their effectiveness, and to learn from successes or failures, this process is not served by short-term funding. When projects are funded only for short periods (for example, six months to 12 months), and are dependent for refunding on the results of reviews of short-term achievements, project administrators have their efforts dissipated by the need to provide justification for further support. The time required to prepare constantly, submit and resubmit requests for financial assistance has been a continuing complaint of project administrators. Six monthly and 12 monthly funding guarantees are not sufficient to develop effective activities, particularly when they depend on gaining the support and confidence of both the general community and of the participants, an extremely time consuming process. Well-designed programs allow individual projects two and three years of guaranteed funding. This allows for the building up of appropriate project staff, secure from the possibility of early project termination. It facilitates experimentation and innovation.

If programs are designed with broad objectives they should be capable of accommodating shifts in emphasis and direction. Programs designed to handle specific situations of labour shortages, large-scale redundancies, etc., will, of necessity, often be short-term, but in these situations there will be no expectation of further funding. Shifts in government and community priorities and goals are to be expected, but ad hoc, ill planned and hastily implemented schemes, with limited funding periods, should not be justified or legitimated by reference to the need to respond to such priorities and goals. Effective planning minimises such occurrences.

It is also essential that a guarantee is given to project participants that any allowances paid to them will remain at the same level for the duration of the project. Under NEAT some years ago participant allowances were suddenly reduced. This caused many withdrawals from courses, some of which had been specifically arranged under NEAT. It also caused hardships for trainees, many of whom had budgetted on the basis of the original allowance.

4. Manpower projects should be planned to encourage and facilitate the participation of the local community and project participants

Ideally, the concept of community participation involves active mechanisms to enable each local community to have a clear role in the ongoing administration of projects. The projects themselves should be designed to meet local needs, as determined by the community. At present certain programs are more amenable to community participation than others. For example, the CYSS, EPUY and NEAT Special Groups programs provide funding in response to submissions by groups at local level. Indeed, the CYSS guidelines stipulate that a public meeting must be called to establish local

committees to develop program proposals for CYSS funding approval.

CYSS has the capacity both to involve local communities in providing resources for unemployed youth and to generate and stimulate public debate about issues of unemployment. That it has been able to do so in many cases is testimony to the advantages to be gained by devolving authority to the local level.

While NEAT Special Groups and EPUY allow for community participation, there are no formal mechanisms to encourage such participation, and in fact participation in these projects is limited principally to professionals and semi-professionals working in the employment, education and welfare fields.

Departmentally administered programs such as NEAT (Standard), SYETP and RAS involve little, if any, active participation by either the community or participants. They are tightly administered by the State and Central office of DEYA and their actual operation at local level devolves to the CES.

There is room for a great deal more participation and involvement by local communities in the design, development, administration and control of local projects. As well, those projects presently administered solely by government institutions could be effectively decentralised to allow local participation.

Obviously, local community participation causes some problems, and these include the introduction of local politics, and inconsistency in the quality of decision making. The former is inevitable and is the micro-equivalent of what occurs at a State and



Commonwealth level. The latter could be partly alleviated by the establishment of guidelines designed not to restrict local autonomy, but to ensure that the unemployed, wherever they live, benefit equally from available resources.

5. Manpower projects should have defined objectives and their effectiveness should be reviewed

Most existing programs have defined objectives, but some of these are so general that evaluation and assessment of achievement becomes particularly difficult. The NEAT objectives, for instance, have not been changed since the scheme was introduced in 1972, despite the enormous changes in Australia's economic situation and governmental economic policy, which have since occurred. At the local level, most NEAT funded projects have specified objectives. These objectives are diverse, reflecting the wide variety of approaches that were encouraged under the program, and the fact that no specific objectives, other than those for NEAT itself, have been publicly enunciated.

Even given the fact that NEAT funding has only been provided for these courses on a pilot basis, the lack of overall objectives makes it difficult to assess the value of the program itself. It seems that, in the absence of national objectives, local groups have attempted to meet the needs as they have been perceived at local level. NEAT authorities, on the other hand, seem to be basically concerned with the employment outcomes of projects. There is some indication that, in an attempt to cater for departmental requirements, some manipulation of project aims and objectives takes place. In such a process, the loose use of concepts such as work skills, employment orientation, work experience, etc. becomes a means of satisfying administrators for the purpose of obtaining NEAT

funding. This blurring of the issues makes it difficult to set meaningful objectives at the local level.

The objectives that have been set for many projects under both NEAT and EPUY are difficult to evaluate as they are not sufficiently specified to allow assessment. For instance, the summarised training aims of some NEAT groups are:

- \* to assist functionally illiterate adults to overcome their employment problems;
- \* to provide socially or emotionally disadvantaged youth with skills to enable them to compete realistically in the employment market; and
- \* to provide educational and personal skills to allow participants better access to improved career opportunities.

The stated aims of the EPUY program are also hard to evaluate in terms of outcome. Indeed, the first evaluation report noted that little objective testing of participants takes place, despite the fact that the program seeks to increase employability through improvement in literacy and numeracy skills. These programs may make an effective contribution to the employment prospects of individuals, but it is difficult to measure concepts such as increased motivation and morale, increased self-esteem, etc. It is, therefore, difficult to determine whether other project strategies may have been more effective.

In some other programs, objectives are changed in order to relate them to the program's achievements, rather than its initial objectives. SYETP, for instance, is now justified on the basis of its work experience role, rather than in terms of its original objectives as a 'training' program.

The evaluation of manpower programs according to objectives is a crucial feature of manpower program design. If there are inadequate mechanisms for evaluation, there is little way of discovering which strategies best achieve a particular objective. Effective evaluation of programs requires the build-up of an adequate data base. While there is a substantial amount of written material available (including research, the reports of various working parties, and other descriptive documentation) there is little hard data, particularly on the characteristics of the unemployed, including those who are participants in manpower programs. In addition, there is no co-ordinated source of information, and this leads to an unnecessary duplication of research effort.

6. Manpower programs should maximise permanent employment and create additional jobs

While most programs see the facilitation of permanent employment as an ultimate objective for participants, only a few of them act directly to maximise permanent employment.

SYETP, through the provision of subsidies to employers, has a capacity to encourage the availability of additional permanent employment, but there is no requirement that participants constitute a net addition to the workforce. Although various safeguards could be introduced to maximise the probability of effective job creation, it would be extremely difficult to design a watertight screening system which would ensure that subsidies were available only for jobs which would not otherwise exist. Whilst existing data is inconclusive, it appears that those jobs created as a result of SYETP are often temporary in nature, the participants being retrenched at the conclusion of the subsidy period.

In other cases, no job creation process occurs at all: employers receive the subsidy for staff who would have been hired anyway and some employers retrench older workers and replace them with SYETP participants. The scheme thus becomes a substitution process which allows young people to compete more equally with older workers for available jobs.

At best, programs such as CYSS, EPUY and NEAT produce the same substitution by providing participants with skills which will render them more attractive to prospective employers.

Even if programs were available for all the unemployed, the lack of job opportunities prevents the effective usage of skills and/or abilities developed. Co-ordinators of several programs, particularly NEAT programs, have said that they are considering terminating the programs, because the expectations of employment raised in participants by their involvement cannot be met. Others want to see the objectives of programs changed so that they focus on skills for survival in a situation of continuing unemployment. While many program co-ordinators feel that participation has led certain individuals into permanent full-time work, it is accepted generally that the substitution effect is taking place. This will always be the case where there is no total addition to the number of jobs available.

Generally, manpower projects are not permitted to engage in employment placement activities. These are seen as an attempt to duplicate or compete with the services offered by the CES. If the CES received notice of all existing vacancies this would be understandable, but it is clear that the CES does not have access to all vacancies, and that some employers prefer to use other sources of recruitment.

One review of the Commonwealth Employment Service surveyed employers. The survey showed that the majority of employers indicated that they did not bother to lodge white collar vacancies with the CES. They were also highly critical of the poor screening and selection of applicants for referral, and of the delays in referral action after lodgement of a vacancy. One employer stated that, in his opinion, people who answered his organisation's newspaper advertisement really wanted to work whereas those sent by the CES often did not.<sup>15</sup>

It is interesting to note that this review recommended that the CES should assist, on a trial basis, in the administration (and funding) of a limited number of self-help groups.

In working towards job placement self-help groups can provide assistance by providing a regular list of job vacancies for the benefit of the unemployed obtained by actively canvassing for vacancies directly with employers or through their own publicity campaigns.<sup>16</sup>

The arguments for and against job creation have been canvassed elsewhere in this report, and it is not proposed to deal with this question at any length in this section. However, it is apparent that, under some existing manpower programs, projects are not permitted to engage in activities which could lead participants into employment either on a wage or an entrepreneurial basis. CYSS, for instance, prohibits the selling of goods made through projects. Under NEAT, there are restrictions to obtaining funding for activities which are income producing. There are well-known arguments for these restrictions - unfair competition from government subsidisation, objections from unions, questions of insurance and workers' compensation. All have some validity in a situation of full employment, but in a situation of long-term unemployment there is a strong argument to encourage people to become more self sufficient by incorporating these concepts into manpower programs, and

by initiating programs which encourage such activities. This should not pre-empt the development of meaningful and comprehensive job creation schemes, but should be seen as a complementary short-term measure.

7. Manpower programs should be based upon labour market needs and demands

Existing manpower programs, with the exception of NEAT (formal) and the 'skills in short supply' program, do not specifically concentrate on the provision of skills to meet future labour market demand. Indeed, the NEAT range of on-job assistance schemes, including SYETP, can be criticised on the basis that they often provide training in areas of low or reducing labour market demand.

It is generally accepted that, without a co-ordinated and centrally planned economy, it is impossible to predict areas of long-term future labour demand, except within broad parameters. At present, predictive mechanisms appear to be capable of forecasting for specific professions and skills in the short term, or on an industry basis in the medium term. Forecasting for semi-skilled areas seems to be particularly difficult.

Nevertheless, despite these inherent limitations, Australia does not appear to be making adequate use of those mechanisms which do exist to predict demand, either on a medium- or short-term basis. Nor are current manpower programs effectively using the information which is available.

A variety of organisations, committees and sub-committees are working in an unco-ordinated manner in the area of labour demand and skills development needs.

Both the National Training Council (NTC) and TAFE have committees examining the needs of industry. NTC committees seek to define those industry training needs which could be met either through NEAT or by the industry itself.

TAFE committees attempt to determine basic training and retraining courses that will meet the needs of industry and the individual. It is comforting to believe that tri-partite committees of educators, unionists and industry representatives are aware of developments within the industry, but there are indications that, without co-ordination, communication and input from other related organisations, their ability as predictive agents is limited.

Additionally, of course, the Industrial Training Commission has a range of committees established to look at current and future demands for training and retraining of skilled tradesmen.

Of the current manpower programs, NEAT (formal) training is approved on the basis of labour market lists of occupations for which there is, and is expected to be, a continued demand. These lists are compiled by the forecasting section of DEYA. In the interim report, it was noted that, on the basis of a Victorian report on NEAT trainees, those trainees who undertook formal training courses were generally employed more quickly and more often than 'on-job' trainees who did not stay with the employer from whom training was obtained.<sup>17</sup>

When training is based on identified labour market demands, trainees find it easier to obtain employment than when training is provided for a specific job not necessarily related to demand.

The capacity to increase the numbers in training and retraining is limited by the conditions of eligibility of the various manpower programs. Under NEAT, the 'labour market test' for approval of on-job training is that there is no suitable applicant for the particular vacancy registered with the local CES office. However, the higher the rate of unemployment, and the lower the skill level of the job, the less chance there is that a training subsidy will be available for an unskilled worker. This dilemma faces the Industrial Training Commission in its attempts to define areas of skill shortage.

At a low level of skill, there is a certain transfer element amongst unemployed semi-skilled workers. This element of transferability, combined with on-job training carried out by employers (who are seen to have a definite responsibility in the area), does tend to reduce easily identifiable areas for the training of unskilled workers. In this context, the only valid argument for continuing training is the creation of a reserve pool of skilled labour, to be available when, and if, the economy improves. There is also the possibility that, despite the absence of active labour market demand for a particular skill, training may create a demand among employers who would be prepared to expand their activities if more skilled workers were available.

None of the existing manpower programs have addressed themselves to the task of creating new careers. The potential for the development of new careers exists primarily in areas of public expenditure such as health, recreation, education and welfare, but there are also possibilities in the soft technology field, such as solar energy. The potential number and nature of such careers are dependent upon decisions made about limits of technology in society, and the



directions of government planning and policy in a wide range of areas - the arts, the development of cultural pursuits, historical preservation, etc. Unless more new careers are developed as an active and conscious policy, labour market training will continue to be largely predicated on inadequate predictive devices.

8. Manpower programs and projects should emphasise project quality and participant satisfaction

One of the most consistent themes running through the development and administration of manpower programs is the emphasis on the numbers of participants rather than the quality of projects and programs. Programs are often evaluated on cost efficiency (cost per participant) rather than cost benefit criteria. Under CYSS, there is an expectation that the local community should supply as many resources as possible - DEYA funding being available on a last resort basis for certain items of equipment and facilities. At the time of writing, a new voluntary community service program is being developed by DEYA. From all indications, this program will again depend on the provision of services and goodwill from the community and again, like CYSS and EPUY, will offer participants no more than the standard unemployment benefit equivalent.

The question of quality, however, is more than a question of cost. It is a reflection of the basic philosophical stance of program designers and operators about the needs of individuals participating in the program. Programs which are hastily designed to give an illusion of action rarely take into account such needs. They are likely to be concerned with short-term pragmatic goals rather than with long-term objectives.

SYETP, as it has developed, is an example of a program which continually emphasises numbers, rather than quality and participant satisfaction. Follow-up of trainees has been minimal. Young people have been placed in employment which has a limited capacity to impart any meaningful skills and which is liable to cease after the duration of the subsidy. Yet, the program is continually extolled as one of the cornerstones of Government manpower programming.

Few programs combine the acquisition of meaningful skills with a solid back-up and support service. Participant satisfaction depends on many factors. One of these is the financial return for participation. Only NEAT offers a training allowance that at least provides the participants with a living wage.

Although individual CYSS, NEAT and EPUY projects may emphasise quality, the projects are constrained by financial limitations and, particularly with CYSS, a strict limitation of the range of activities to be provided. Under NEAT, project success is judged largely on whether participants find employment, and does not take into consideration the question of personal gains.

There is also an increasing tendency to standardise programs. Thus, the NEAT Handicapped Youth Program, which originally provided individually related measures of assistance, has had its period of general subsidy reduced to harmonise with the standardised subsidy periods offered under NEAT on-job training. Standardised subsidy periods, while useful as a yardstick, do not take into account individual differences in the ability to receive training. The need for flexible subsidy periods is recognised in the training assistance offered to Aborigines, the subsidy duration of which is determined by individual vocational officers.

High quality programs require high quality staff. The Principal of Preston Technical College made the following comment in his study tour report:

The majority of administrators and tutors working in adult education are the products of the formalised system and thus tend to have attitudes, values and experience related to the socially and educationally advantaged.<sup>18</sup>

There are few indications that DEYA has positively set out to emphasise quality in staffing. Salaries are set at low levels, implying a reliance on public spiritedness and commitment to ensure that appropriate staff are employed. The quality of most CYSS staff can be attributed to a commitment and concern for the unemployed rather than to positive action by DEYA.

9. Manpower programs should be for volunteers, not conscripts

All existing manpower programs are ostensibly voluntary. However, SYETP vacancies are regarded by the CES as normal, full-time vacancies on which applicants may be tested to determine whether they are able and willing to work. In this respect, SYETP can be seen as having undesirable elements of compulsion because, theoretically, CES applicants may be required to take what is, in many cases, only a temporary job, or lose their benefit.

Furthermore, there is a possibility that unemployed people may feel some compulsion to become program participants, because of fear that their entitlement to unemployment benefit may otherwise be withdrawn.

The recent announcement of the Voluntary Community Service Scheme, through which participants are to be

given an opportunity to perform voluntary work for an allowance which will be equivalent to the unemployment benefit, indicates the problems inherent in programs which, while purportedly voluntary, can lead to the stigmatisation of non-participants. Such programs can reinforce the 'dole bludger' image by encouraging the community and employers to label participants as motivated, and therefore 'deserving', and non-participants as 'undeserving'. Indeed, the Victorian Premier has already suggested that preference in employment should be given to young people who have undertaken voluntary work.

Absence of choice also introduces implicit elements of compulsion. At present, the unemployed are given little chance to choose between existing programs. For the adult unemployed, there is no choice except between NEAT and the few available NEAT Special Groups and 'Skills in Short Supply' programs. Relocation Assistance, which is also available to adults, is a measure of assistance only available when a job, or vocational training, is obtained.

For young people, the choice is between training under NEAT or SYETP, or joining CYSS groups. However, in order to receive formal training through NEAT, the applicant must choose an occupation which is adjudged to be in short supply. In the case of CYSS, a variety of projects are available, particularly in the metropolitan area, but they are scattered and, for many of the unemployed, are geographically inaccessible. This is particularly relevant in rural areas.

There are only a handful of projects in the EPUY and NEAT Special Groups area. These are usually designed for those with specific disadvantages, such as literacy and numeracy problems. There is no government commitment in Australia, as there is in the United Kingdom, to provide programs for all the unemployed. Programs are developed on an ad hoc, fragmented basis.

and public expenditure on manpower programs is relatively low compared to that of other OECD countries.

Voluntary participation in projects is enhanced by the availability of information, both about careers and available courses, and about the programs themselves.

At present, occupational information is generally geared to school students. Moreover, it tends to cover only the professional, semi-professional and skilled work areas. Information about manpower programs tends to be aimed primarily at employers; there is very little information available to potential participants.

Access to manpower programs is limited, both by lack of opportunities and by the failure of government to provide adequate back-up and support services. While participants under the various NEAT formal courses are allowed various allowances, for example, living away from home allowances, fares to and from the course, the scheme does not provide a range of support services, such as child care, which would facilitate the involvement of some potential trainees.

Other programs do not facilitate access because of inadequate remuneration paid to applicants, for instance, neither CYSS nor EPUY provide any allowance other than the normal unemployment benefit or equivalent, plus \$6 per week for fares assistance. This is not adequate for those who have dependants or who are geographically isolated. There are no special support services in either program to assist those with special circumstances or needs, although EPUY projects can, and often do, include a counsellor on project establishment.

The concept of voluntary participation in programs becomes meaningless when the programs themselves prevent voluntary participation.

10. Manpower programs should be available to all workers, with priority to the unemployed, and provision should be made to positively discriminate in favour of the disadvantaged unemployed

No existing programs are open to currently employed persons. When NEAT was introduced, albeit in a context of full employment, it was intended that it function as an active labour market intervention mechanism.

Within this function, any person wishing to upgrade or acquire skills in areas of defined labour market shortage was eligible to participate. However, with the continuing rise in the numbers of the unemployed, the scheme was targeted specifically at the unemployed. Since then, all new programs have restricted eligibility to unemployed persons.

Despite this, the existing programs are not reaching all the unemployed. This is largely a matter of limitations to manpower expenditure, but also reflects a policy of concentrating on the most publicly visible of the unemployed - youth. CYSS, EPUY, SYETP and NHYP are all programs for young people under 25. The Relocation Assistance Scheme and most of the NEAT programs have no age barriers. It is difficult to calculate the percentage of the work force involved in manpower programs at any one time. However, based on 1977/78 figures, it is considered that no more than 70,000 of the 493,000 currently unemployed are involved in manpower programs, excluding the Commonwealth Rebate for Apprentice Full-time Training (CRAFT), at any one time.

Programs should be open to all people - employed and unemployed. But, if there are limitations on places in programs, then programs should focus on the unemployed rather than the employed.

To a certain extent, manpower program policy does discriminate positively in favour of special groups. The assistance available for Aborigines is a recognition of the fact that there are special and diverse needs. NEAT assistance for Aborigines is flexible; eligibility criteria existing under NEAT for other unemployed groups are waived and subsidy duration can be extended according to individual needs as perceived by specialist employment counsellors. Job creation programs, funded by the Department of Aboriginal Affairs, exist not only within the Local Government and public sectors, but also within private enterprise. Low-interest loans are available for the promotion of Aboriginal business enterprises. Supplementary assistance is available for the provision of services that support Aborigines in training; clothing allowances and fare allowances are available so that Aborigines living away from home can return to their communities on a regular basis.

The handicapped, particularly the mentally, physically and psychologically handicapped, are also recognised as having special disadvantages. Special assistance is available under NEAT to provide a higher level of 'training subsidy' to employers. Through the scheme for handicapped school leavers, specially subsidised periods of work experience are available. Paradoxically, under the EPUY program, young people do not qualify for this specially subsidised work experience, and the provision of such experience is one of the greatest problems facing EPUY co-ordinators.

Although precedents exist for positive discrimination towards special groups, it is clear that the groups are selectively determined. For instance, migrants who share many disadvantages with Aborigines, have no special program, although English Language courses are provided by the Department of Immigration

and Ethnic Affairs. No current manpower program attempts to combine language, social and work skills. Programs run under the auspices of NEAT Special Groups for migrant women in Melbourne have recently been terminated.

While the 'psychologically handicapped' are deemed worthy of special consideration and are eligible to participate in NYHP, the 'socially handicapped' are not. In response to this arbitrary delineation, State DEYA operators tend to redefine the 'socially handicapped' as 'psychologically handicapped', so that they will qualify for assistance.

Programs should attempt to assist individuals to function more effectively in the labour market. To a certain extent, the Relocation Assistance Scheme is a recognition of geographical disadvantage. EPUY recognises needs for improvements in literacy and numeracy. CYSS recognises needs for support and maintenance of morale. Yet, none of the programs is a systematic attempt to come to grips with these problems. CYSS and EPUY both limit their involvement to youth; NEAT Handicapped and Special Groups exclude the 'socially' disadvantaged.

While positive discrimination does exist in current manpower programs, it is ad hoc and unrelated to any concept of disadvantage related to needs of individuals. Attempts to provide assistance to the disadvantaged are generally based on a categorical approach. Those disadvantaged unemployed workers who do not fit into the acceptable categories are denied access to those programs which provide the special assistance they need.



### A Chart of Existing Programs in Terms of the Planning Principles

The following chart is an attempt to analyse manpower programs in accordance with the planning principles set out in Section 3 of this report. It is a visual representation of the previous discussion. Both the chart and the discussion are limited in the three different ways set out below.

Firstly, the ten planning principles were designed by the study workers and are related to a set of values and assumptions laid down previously in this report and which are the distillation of ideas from many sources.<sup>19</sup> It can be argued that it is irrelevant to analyse manpower programs which were originally based on a different set of values and assumptions; that the principles laid down in this report are arbitrary and open to debate and criticism; that even if the principles were valid, they are relevant only in the design of new programs.

Although there is some merit in this argument, and neither the Government nor DEYA appear to use a consistent set of principles when designing manpower programs, the effective analysis of manpower programs without an analytical framework is undesirable.

The lack of an analytical framework is exemplified in the interim report where there is some criticism of the main programs and an attempt to discuss the major issues involved in manpower programming. Arising out of this criticism a series of options for each manpower program is set down. It is, however, difficult to determine which option is the best without a broader framework within which to look at the effect of changes in one program in the context of all the others. For instance: What is the basis for suggesting

that CYSS should be a support program for all the unemployed? Why should SYETP be changed to encourage training in additional jobs? Resolution of such questions requires a series of clear, publicly stated values and principles.

The second limitation of this analysis is the choice of the measures of assistance which were analysed. For example, it can be argued that an analysis of the total NEAT system by reference to the 10 planning principles will be very different from separate analyses of the individual aspects of NEAT. SYETP, 'Skills in Short Supply', NHYP and Special Groups for the disadvantaged, are all analysed separately in the following tables. This criticism has some validity. While NEAT is a multi-faceted program, the measures of assistance are part of a total program. However, the principles laid down in this report relate to all assistance provided in a programmable form. It is meaningless if one aspect of NEAT approximates the desired features of the planning principles, while others do not. In this context, separate analysis of the measures is justifiable.

Thirdly, there are measures of assistance not analysed in these tables which have been described in the detailed Table 2 on page 65, for instance, the Fares Assistance Scheme and the CRAFT scheme. There are also measures not mentioned anywhere in the report, for example, Vocational Guidance and Career Reference Centres. Choice of programs for analysis reflects a number of variables but chiefly, common acceptance of the relative importance of the programs.

Finally, the analysis may often lack detail. This is unavoidable, as it was extremely difficult to amass the detailed factual knowledge of each of the eight programs analysed, within the time span allocated for this project. While there will always be differences

of opinion over the interpretation of facts and indeed over the relevance of some of the facts themselves, it is detrimental to analysis when facts are incorrect. As far as possible, attempts were made to ensure that understanding of the specific operational details of each program was comprehensive.



# CHART a

## PROGRAM

### NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING SYSTEM NEAT - Training in Educational Institutions and In-Plant Subsidised Training

### SPECIAL YOUTH EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING PROGRAM SYETP

#### Program Description (Basic)

NEAT is a multi-faceted training program with formal course and on-job training aspects together with special funding arrangements for courses for certain disadvantaged groups and for skills judged to be in short supply. This analysis relates to the on-job training and individual course aspects of NEAT.

Subsidy scheme for employers to encourage them to employ young people who have been unemployed for at least four months. Employers are subsidised a flat rate of \$45 to employ young people for four months. Recent changes to the scheme have attempted to ensure that subsidies are not available in respect of young people who would be normally employed without the subsidy.

#### PROGRAM PRINCIPLES

##### 1. Programs nationally planned and projects locally controlled.

###### a) Broadly based guidelines.

Guidelines for NEAT are promulgated at national level and reinforced by specific and detailed procedural and operational instructions. There is little room for flexibility at the operating level, the CES. This is seen to deter deviation from broad objectives, particularly in matters of course approval. Some interpretation occurs at state administrative level.

National program delivered through CES. Local involvement is from CES who are responsible for administration and delivery. Guidelines promulgated within DEYA only and supplemented by detailed operational inspections. A codified manual for operators at local agency office has only been available lately.

###### b) National mechanisms for review.

Mechanisms for the review of NEAT are available. Review of all DEYA programs is the responsibility of an internal evaluation branch. However, since its inception there has been no overall review of NEAT although a number of specific isolated studies have been carried out.

Review responsibility is that of DEYA. No specific inbuilt evaluation mechanism in scheme. Review has been undertaken but results are not public. Statistics are available within DEYA but it is understood that they are not reliably maintained.

###### c) National mechanisms for future planning.

NEAT is the basic vehicle for the implementation of Government manpower policy. Its priorities have changed to fit the economic and social objectives of the Government's manpower policy.

Changes have been constantly made to SYETP eligibility and subsidy amounts, possibly reflecting changing priorities within DEYA. Little indication however that these changes relate to labour market realities represented by labour market demand and technological change factors.

###### d) Mechanisms to establish working relationships.

To a certain extent working relationships have been established. There is considerable doubt whether relationships with educational authorities have been established at national level and whether this has effected relationships at state level.

Not clear whether relationships have been established with employer bodies and employer representatives. Widely publicised.

e) Local project design.	Measures of assistance under NEAT are determined at central office (DEYA) level. Responsibility for implementation and some interpretation of policy takes place at state office level. Individual approval of training takes place at local CES level. The CES has little direct influence on the overall design of the program.	The CES has little direct influence on the design of this program.
f) Local project administration.	See above.	Local CES administers and operates the scheme according to strict guidelines and procedures determined at DEYA central office level.
g) Local project coordination.	Local CES are responsible for local coordination of relevant bodies - employers, educational institutions, etc.	Local CES responsible where necessary. Some publicity support given at national level.
h) Local review and project modification.	Indirectly. Local CES is responsible for follow-up of individual trainees. Not involved directly in review/evaluation of scheme as a whole.	The CES is only indirectly involved when requested by state or central offices. Local CES cannot unilaterally modify the assistance available.
<u>2. Programs planned in relation to other programs and ensuring comprehensive coverage.</u>		
a) Variety of functions.	NEAT is a one purpose training scheme. It should be noted however that the NEAT system itself encompasses a number of different measures of assistance. These are individually discussed under separate headings in this analysis.	While SYETP has been designated as a training scheme in practice it is a work experience/basic training program. There is little follow-up and limited support facilities. On-job training/work experience only.
b) Complements other programs.	NEAT is the mainstream training scheme of the DEYA. Other programs have been designed since its inception to provide additional assistance such as remedial and compensatory education, support and motivation, etc. for young people. Rarely do these programs have direct links with NEAT. While there is some complementation, the range of other programs is limited, there are no job creation schemes and few support mechanisms designed to back-up the training function. In addition there are few other programs that give specific assistance to older applicants.	By providing a work experience subsidy function it can be said to complement other programs available at CES level. However there is a certain amount of overlap with the subsidy assistance offered under NEAT on-job, NHYP and NEAT assistance for the handicapped which can cause confusion at operational level.
c) Local project multifunctional.	To a large extent assistance under NEAT can be tailored to fit and be used by a wide range of clientele, e.g. handicapped persons, aborigines, etc. This represents flexibility in amount and duration of the subsidy rather than an attempt to widen the functions of the scheme.	A single faceted work experience/training program.

- d) Local projects maximise continuity. NEAT assistance is seen as a program in itself and has not been designed to lead from or to other programs. In individual cases it can follow other assistance such as CYSS or EPUY.

SYETP subsidised employment can be given to participants in other programs such as CYSS or EPUY. Generally it cannot follow other NEAT programs. The introduction of SYETP was not an attempt to provide a complementary service/program to those already existing but rather an ad hoc response to a crisis situation.

3. Projects developed and funded for a guaranteed period.

- a) Guaranteed funding period. The basic on-job subsidy and individual institutional assistance is on-going.
- b) Uses local funding structure. Delegation to approve training at local CES level. Funds are not localised but managed at state level. No quota system at local level.
- c) Maximum local control of funds. As above.

No threat to employers once a training agreement is made. Basically a year-to-year proposition subject to review of its effectiveness or to the priorities of DEYA.

Funding is within DEYA.

Local CES has complete responsibility for approval. No allocation for local offices nor any quota arrangements. If applicants are eligible subsidy can be given to employer who agrees to provide the work experience. CES approves funding.

4. Projects planned to facilitate participation of local community and participants.

- a) Community participation. None - but see NEAT Special Groups.
- b) Involvement of participants. Only insofar as CES, employer and applicant work out training goals and plan.

Essentially pitched at employers in general. Few attempts to enlist 'community' assistance apart from general publicity about scheme to encourage lodgement of vacancies.

There is no involvement of participants in the scheme.

5. Projects objectives defined  
and effectiveness reviewed.

- |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|
| a) Objectives.  | Broad overall objectives stated at inception of scheme and not changed since despite the use of different strategies and priorities.  | Objectives generally stated but have changed over the duration of program. Difficult to evaluate whether the training objective is being fulfilled.                             |
| b) Defined mechanisms for evaluation.                             | Mechanisms for evaluation were not built into scheme. Internal responsibility for evaluation only. Evaluation usually relates to program objectives which, because of changing strategies etc., may no longer be current. | Statistical data about applicants is available. No on-going mechanism for monitoring except reports of experience of local offices of CES.                                      |
| c) Community and participant participation in project evaluation. | Not until recently. Current mail evaluation requests ex-participants views of effectiveness of scheme for them. Never any attempt made to have local community involved in review of scheme.                              | At national level survey of employers has taken place. No systematic case studies of participants available. Reviewers have not seen a need to involve community in the scheme. |
| d) Independent research access.                                   | DEYA has not made detailed information available to public. DEYA policy not to allow public access to names of applicants, etc.   | Access of outside bodies to statistical information bank not allowed. Only basic data is released.  |
| e) Publish results.   | Various minor NEAT reviews carried out by DEYA have not been published.   | National review not yet finalised or published. Some selected interim results published. No free access to statistical data.  |

6. Programs maximise permanent  
employment and create  
additional jobs.

- |  |   |   |
|--|---|---|
| a) Permanent employment.                           | Generally criteria of approval is that applicant will stay with subsidised employer or have skills in demand elsewhere. With institutional training approval is given only in occupational areas of labour market demand. | Only indirectly through the experience of temporary employment. Scheme's 'work experience' orientation accepts that for many young persons permanent employment will not necessarily flow from participation in this scheme. Permanent employment is however seen as the objective. |
| b) Additional job opportunities, not substitution. | Insofar as training is in skills-in-short-supply substitution does not occur. Does occur in on-job training.  | Substitutes subsidised applicants for non-subsidised or older workers or women  |



a) Oriented to future jobs.

In-plant training tends to be less oriented to future labour market demand as it is more concerned with assisting the unemployed obtain skills in general. NEAT institutional attempts training in areas of projected labour market demand. The limitation is the ability of DEYA forecasting section to accurately make these assessments in the long term, particularly in areas outside the professional and skilled fields.

Evidence suggests to the contrary. Many placements under the scheme are in areas subject to declining labour market demand. No specific attempt to orient scheme to needs of future labour market.

b) New careers.

Does not attempt involvement in this area.

Same as above.

8. Programs and projects should emphasise program quality and participant satisfaction.

a) Program standards.

Difficult to determine. It would appear that there are inadequate numbers of staff at CES level to adequately handle the scheme particularly the follow-up of trainees. There are also doubts about whether CES staff are sufficiently trained to adequately administer the program. Indications that numbers in training are more important than the quality of training.

There are indications that quantity (numbers of participants) is more important than quality of training. Some subsidised jobs are very menial. Does little to enhance the dignity of participants as program is usually 'sold' as work experience. Participants can be retrenched as soon as subsidy ends. Little follow-up of trainees although recent instructions have now emphasised this aspect of SYETP.

b) Participant recognition.

On-job training depends on the employer and the availability of adequate supervision for trainees. There is some room for improvement, particularly on the supervision side to ensure that participants' needs are being met and that training provided is meaningful. With course based training, recognition depends on supervision.

Can do so where employment is offered on a permanent basis after period of subsidy. Depends on attitude of employers.

9. Programs for volunteers and conscripts.

a) Voluntary participation.

Participation is voluntary.

Generally, but applicants who refuse SYETP vacancies can have their unemployment benefit terminated. While this is probably rarely done in practice it could be seen as a compulsion to accept what in many cases is a temporary position.

b) Choice of program.

Criteria for approval of vacancies for which subsidies can be given limits the capacity for on-job training and prohibits a wide choice of training opportunities. Institutional training choice is wider but limited to occupations for which labour market demand exists. NEAT is the only available program for 'older' workers.

To a limited extent. Participants may have a choice between SYETP and NEAT. Participants may have choice of jobs offering SYETP subsidy.

c) Access.

Open to all unemployed provided that they have been unemployed for four months and provided that there are no CES applicants to fill the job who do not need training. No special provision for support services although living away from home allowance is available. For trainees in educational institutions training allowance above unemployment benefit levels is available but is inadequate. On-job trainees are paid award wages.

Within eligibility criteria only. Some indication that only the best available applicants are employed. Limited by the number of employers using scheme. SYETP does not create employment. No special support services provided.

10. Programs open to all workers, priority for the unemployed, positive discrimination for the disadvantaged unemployed.

a) Equalise opportunities.

Open to all the unemployed but only a small percentage can participate because of funding limitations and eligibility criteria. As NEAT attempts to provide specific skills it can be said to equalise opportunities.

Limited by number of jobs available. Provision of a work experience may tend to equalise opportunities for some.

b) Positive discrimination.

Targetted to unemployed. There are, however, provisions to extend the duration of the on-job training subsidy period for applicants classified as handicapped according to CES definition. Available information suggests that this provision is rarely used by CES officers although specialist counsellors servicing institutions do make use of it.

Limited to young people. Originally meant to assist longest unemployed of school leavers who had not previously worked. Widened to include a large proportion of CES youth applicants and, thus lost much of its positive discrimination aspect. Recent changes to the scheme again attempt to target assistance to those most in need, i.e. those whom employers would not normally employ. Difficult to determine whether this is positive discrimination for the disadvantaged or an attempt to stop employers abusing the scheme by obtaining subsidy for normal recruitment. Not attempt to promulgate operational criteria for applicant selection. CES now has to determine whether applicant has attributes that employer would normally seek. If so, no subsidy is available.

# CHART b

## PROGRAM

## RELOCATION ASSISTANCE SCHEME (RAS)

## NEAT

## 'SKILLS IN SHORT SUPPLY' COURSES

### Program Description (Basic)

Assistance for unemployed persons who cannot obtain employment in their locality, to enable them to move to another location to take up employment or retraining.

Provision of funding to establish special courses to train unemployed persons for skills judged to be in short supply. This analysis refers to the courses in Victoria initiated and established by the Industrial Training Commission in conjunction with TAFE, and funded by DEYA.

### PROGRAM PRINCIPLES

#### 1. Programs nationally planned and projects locally controlled.

##### a) Broadly based guidelines.

This is a centrally controlled project administered at state office level and delivered at local level by the CES. A set of comprehensive regulations and principles has been promulgated and is used by the CES in making decisions.

Until recently there were no guidelines promulgated at national level. Basically DEYA had to be satisfied that a demand for the skills existed and could not be satisfied by existing training courses or by other forms of NEAT funding. Guidelines now being developed which envisage funding for such courses to be a matter of last resort. Now seen more as a TAFE responsibility.

##### b) National mechanisms for review.

Statistics are kept on approvals, types of relocations, etc. for use in project evaluations.

There are no specific mechanisms for review. Variables involved are the perceptions of the course coordinators as to whether the labour market demand has been satisfied. Refunding usually proceeds on this basis.

##### c) National mechanisms for future planning.

It is not known what mechanisms are available for relating the scheme to overall government economic or manpower objectives. So far it seems to be a static scheme providing assistance on a piecemeal reactive basis rather than being actively used as an instrument of labour efficiency. It does not seem to be complementing the planning functions of other bodies such as decentralised or regional development bodies.

Because, in approving courses for funding, DEYA responds to the initiatives of the ITC, it cannot be said that this program adequately takes long-term national planning into consideration.

- |   |   |  |
|---|---|--|
| d) Mechanisms to establish working relationships. | Does not appear to have established overall working arrangements with other national planning bodies. Seems to respond more to demand.  | There is little developed coordination and liaison between DEYA and TAFE sectors at national level. It is very much left to state training bodies to develop liaison and coordination.           |
| e) Local project design.                          | Delivered at local level by the CES. CES not involved in design of program. Can only administer centrally designed program.   | Design of programs is undertaken at state office level between ITC and TAFE. Industry views are obtained.  |
| f) Local project administration.                  | Combination of local office and state offices of CES. In terms of discussion and application certain matters must always be referred to state level for administrative decision and for payment and determination of allowances and assistance. | Administration is carried out at local level by TAFE colleges where courses are run and coordinated by ITC.  |
| g) Local project coordination.                    | Not required to any great degree. CES as an agency already has local relationships.   | Local TAFE responsible.  |
| h) Local review and project modification.         | Some responsibility on the receiving CES office to monitor the individual relocation and report to central level. Other than this no particular responsibility.   | Local colleges participate in evaluation of course, etc. ITC basically responsible for determining response of employers. Often courses are on 'one-off' basis so little need to modify courses. |

2. Programs planned in relation to other programs and ensuring comprehensive coverage.

- |                               |   |   |
|-------------------------------|---|---|
| a) Variety of functions.      | Uni-functional scheme only. No specified counselling or support function.       | Uni-purpose training scheme only. Trainees can use support facilities of college if available.  |
| b) Complement other programs. | To a certain extent complements NEAT and other measures of assistance from CES. | Can be said to complement a range of other measures funded under NEAT. However, not an initiating or dynamic scheme, rather it responds to outside pressure. Also in terms of numbers involved very small. Not seen as part of a sequence of manpower programs. |

c) Local projects maximise continuity.

At local CES level there is no requirement that the CES makes linkages with other agencies to ensure smoothness of transition.

To a limited extent, in theory, courses could be seen to lead from other schemes such as EPUY, CYSS. In practice there is no mechanism to enhance this process. Not seen to specifically relate to other measures. The aim is to produce workers to fit work for which trained workers were not previously available.

d) Local project multifunctional.

Very much a single function scheme. Isolated from supportive systems but may be used in conjunction with other programs, e.g. NEAT.

Basically a single function scheme designed to impart specific vocational skills. Very few support structures built into scheme.

3. Projects developed and funded for guaranteed period.

a) Guaranteed funding period.

A national on-going program. Once the relocation is completed the assistance terminates. Possibility of a need for a period of income maintenance after the relocation to ensure a smooth transition. Many relocatees do however go immediately to a new job.

As the courses must respond to perceived needs there can only be guaranteed funding on a course to course basis. To this extent funding is guaranteed.

b) Uses local funding structure where possible.

Scheme is administered by local CES who complete all relevant applications. Finance is provided by state DEYA.

Uses the TAFE system.

c) Maximum local control of funds.

Control is centralised.

Courses are funded on the basis of costing developed for the submission to DEYA. Little flexibility with funding at local level. Trainees allowances paid at a state level by DEYA.

4. Projects planned to facilitate participation of local community and participants.

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|---------------------------------|--|--|
| a) Community participation.     | No mechanisms for community participation in determination of assistance provided.   | Only to the extent that local industry can point out a need that might be satisfied. Industry is involved with course development. |
| b) Involvement of participants. | Participants do discuss needs with CES but generally have no opportunities to influence basic design and administration of scheme. | Very limited participation and not in design of the course.  |

5. Projects objectives defined and effectiveness reviewed.

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|---|--|---|
| a) Objectives.  | Objectives are specifically defined but the conditions of eligibility in a time of high unemployment make objectives difficult to achieve. | Objectives of ITC in this field are clearly stated. Because of financial restraints they must rely on DEYA to determine whether objectives can be met. Courses individually have no specific objectives other than providing a course to meet industry needs. |
| b) Defined mechanisms for evaluation.                             | Records of each relocation are retained for analysis.  | Mainly reports from ITC and CES on destination of participants. Success of program is basically whether applicant obtains and stays in employment.  |
| c) Community and participant participation in project evaluation. | Not provided for except through informal feedback to local CES.  | Not specifically but individual courses when evaluated by ITC would take into account comments of participants.   |
| d) Independent research access.                                   | Not provided for.  | Unknown.  |
| e) Publish results.   | Evaluation of the scheme has not been made public.   | No results to publish.  |

6. Programs maximise permanent employment and create additional jobs.

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|--------------------------|---|--|
| a) Permanent employment. | Permanent employment or training for such is the criteria for approval. | Permanent employment is the aim, preferably guaranteed by employers before the course is |
|--------------------------|---|--|

- b) Additional job opportunities,  
not substitution.

Does not substitute where relocation is to employment  
which cannot be filled by local applicants.  
Can have a substitution effect where applicant,  
although the best for the particular job, obtains  
the work at the expense of other qualified local  
people.

commenced.

If skills are in short supply and employers  
have no other source of labour no substitution  
occurs. It is argued that in fact development  
of these courses removes the training  
responsibility from employers who could take  
current unemployed workers and give on-job  
training.

7. Programs based on labour market  
needs and demand.

- a) Oriented to future jobs.

Not known. Generally criteria does not take skill  
shortage or labour market factors into account.

Not so much future labour market demand but  
current shortages are the aim of courses.  
Given adequate predictive mechanisms, courses  
could be developed which were oriented to  
future jobs.

- b) New careers.

Does not attempt to develop new careers.

Although the ITC has discussed this possibility,  
programs developed to this date have not  
emphasised new careers.

8. Programs and projects emphasise  
project quality and participant  
satisfaction.

- a) Program standards.

Not a high quality program. Assistance given does  
not cover all the costs of relocation and does not  
provide assistance in other areas such as loss of  
equity in a home, childrens' education, costs  
associated with relocation.

Generally good standards because courses run  
at TAFE institutions by qualified personnel,  
and have institutional back-up facilities.

- b) Participant recognition.

Insofar as assistance available is not comprehensive.  
Does not particularly enhance participant satisfaction.

Through the achievement of permanent employment  
and the payment of full NEAT allowances.

9. Programs for volunteers not conscripts.

a) Voluntary participation.

No compulsion. CES instructions particularly firm about this.

There is no compulsion.

b) Choice of program.

Applicant has few choices if structurally unemployed except training assistance. If not available only choice is relocation providing he can secure new employment or is eligible for retraining elsewhere.

Little choice between courses available because few have been run. Depends on the person, i.e. whether young, etc.

c) Access.

Limited, unless assistance is advertised. It is often only discussed at the applicants request by CES. In many cases access is limited to those who are best able to cope with transition - the skilled and professional. Certainly less attractive for those with larger facilities and close networks in existing communities. Basic lack of access unless able to obtain employment. Again discriminates against unskilled as usually have higher rates of unemployment and find it difficult to obtain work in any location.

Theoretically all are eligible but only a few courses have been held.

10. Programs open to all workers, priority to unemployed, positive discrimination for disadvantaged unemployed.

a) Equalise opportunities.

Open to unemployed.

Open to unemployed. Only a small number of participants.

b) Positive discrimination.

Does not give positive discrimination to disadvantaged. Acts unwittingly to discriminate in favour of already advantaged.

Inapplicable.



# CHART C

## PROGRAM

## EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR UNEMPLOYED YOUTH (EPUY)

## NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING SYSTEM (NEAT) Special Groups For The Disadvantaged

### Program Description (Basic)

A remedial and compensatory education program to improve opportunities for employment, access to retraining programs and to provide participants with skills vital to social and personal success.

Specific funding on a 'pilot' basis for special courses for disadvantaged groups often run in non-institutional setting. Assistance originally available to encourage a diversity of approaches to the training of the disadvantaged.

### PROGRAM PRINCIPLES

#### 1. Programs nationally planned and projects locally controlled.

##### a) Broadly based guidelines.

Broad national guidelines which set certain structures/directions for local programs in each state. In Victoria an advice document sets down program guidelines in more detail.

No written guidelines. Auspice must show that apart from the need for employment, applicants have other special needs. Each proposal is considered on its merits. No apparent guidelines for approval or rejection of projects. Criteria of success by DEYA appears to be employment goals but not stated as such.

##### b) National mechanisms for review.

Evaluation always seen as an integral part of the development of the scheme. An independent evaluation is being carried out by ACER at the time of this review. Evaluation also undertaken at state level. Doubtful if any inbuilt evaluation mechanisms in actual projects. Most projects have not pretested participants so improvements in literacy and numeracy are subjective judgements.

No evaluation has been undertaken at national level. Little information flow generally between projects. Many projects have recently been terminated on cost effectiveness grounds. It is not known whether cost benefit studies have been attempted. Projects are monitored closely by state offices.

##### c) National mechanisms for future planning.

Not clear whether results and experiences of the scheme are effecting or related to on-going planning. However it is understood that many of the recommendations of the State Review have been acted upon.

Ad hoc assistance for 'pilot' demonstration projects only. Many of the projects have had funding terminated at a time when the disadvantaged are at special risk.

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| d) Mechanisms to establish working relationships. | Cooperation between DEYA and Commonwealth Education. Working relationships established through State Education Department through a steering committee which administers programs.  | As assistance is on a pilot funding basis, these mechanisms are usually left for local administrators to determine. No attempt at national or state level to create relationships other than with local CES who are involved in participant selection in most cases. |
| e) Local project design.                          | Within broad objectives and criteria laid down by State authority. Local programs designed to fit local needs with subsequent variance in program content and emphasis. Some programs do not stick strictly to State guidelines for local reasons but appear to be tolerated.   | Generally, but design is often influenced by the known but unwritten goals of DEYA staff, which are largely employment related.  |
| f) Local project administration.                  | Much of the local financial administration done by local institution. Otherwise administration in hands of local coordinators.  | Locally administered except for needs to satisfy accounting and accountability criteria imposed by DEYA.   |
| g) Local project coordination.                    | Very much left to local administration to develop relationships within relevant bodies, particularly CES.   | Depends on orientation of the project. Usually developed as required.  |
| h) Local review and project modification.         | Originally in Victoria each program carried out its own evaluation in cooperation with the State Evaluation Coordinator. Evaluation more in terms of general review - little formal testing. Based on judgment of teaching staff and CES officers. Main evaluation is external. | Responsibility for evaluation devolves from needs for future funding from DEYA. Refunding demands proof of 'success'. Some flexibility to modify program.  |

2. Programs planned in relation to other programs and ensuring comprehensive coverage.

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|--------------------------|--|--|
| a) Variety of functions. | Some variety; support, work experience, counselling, education, work skills, social skills. Depending on program staff some placement, but not a deliberate aspect of the program. | 'Special' Groups programs are diverse in design and coverage. Some see themselves as pre-training, others have specific employment objectives. Functions covered depend on overall objective but include support, counselling, work experience, remedial education, etc. A program can have a number of functions. |
|--------------------------|--|--|

b) Complement other programs.

Implemented through local education authorities. In Victoria, TAFE. A State Steering Committee established including representatives from DEYA, Commonwealth Education, Industrial Training Commission, Technical and Further Education System, Technical Teachers Association of Victoria. Does complement other programs but to a certain extent overlaps with some NEAT Special programs which have basic educational orientations. Limitation to youth limits complementarity.

Not a program as such but individual projects fill a gap insofar as they are not specifically for young people and have pre-training and support aspects. Doubtful whether this was intended reason for introduction of assistance.

c) Local projects multifunctional.

Includes a number of functions. Functions not exchanged with other manpower programs as program appears to be fairly self-contained.

Depends on program. Generally self-contained and limited to functions related to objectives of program. No specific limitations but unlikely that funding would be approved for functions available elsewhere even though access of individuals was limited.

d) Local projects maximise continuity.

By design does not seem to lead anywhere. In some cases leads to subsidised employment. Generally programs attempt to make participants more competitive and enhance self esteem and confidence. Employment is seen as one measure of success but not the only measure.

Projects should lead on to open employment. Trainees cannot be given further periods of subsidised employment, e.g. SYETP or NEAT-on-job. As local responses to perceived needs they may maximise continuity of services in a local area, or at least fill gaps. There are very few projects funded. Some project coordinators feel that the CES could be more involved in placement for trainees.

3 Projects developed and funded for a guaranteed period

a) Guaranteed funding period.

Programs guaranteed on a year-to-year basis, maybe two or three courses each year. No guarantee about future funding after approved and funded courses have been completed. Difficult to develop long-term planning when funding uncertain from year to year.

Programs funded for short demonstration periods only. Continual requirement for submissions for further courses. If a need is demonstrated and DEYA will not refund there is no other source of funds. TAFE has shown itself reluctant to take over projects that do not have a strong vocational or educational basis. DEYA believes that projects for some groups are the responsibility of other organisations.

b) Uses local funding structure.

To a certain extent through the TAFE system.

Only insofar as program auspices are already established community institutions or services.

c) Maximum local control of funds.

Some flexibility once funds have been allocated.

Effectively funded on basis of detailed submissions. Little unmarked funding available for use at local discretion.

4. Projects planned to facilitate participation of local community and participants

a) Community participation.

Depends on auspice. Programs can originate from the community. Local controlling education institution is most significant influence on participation.

Little evidence for this. Depends on auspice which is often a local educational institution. Most auspices determine own objectives. Insofar as the auspice is representative then community participation in program design etc. takes place.

b) Involvement of participants.

Depends on program. Many programs allow participation in decisions about course content and are responsive to feelings of students.

Depends on program. Many programs do allow active participant involvement in decision making and vary activities accordingly.

5. Project objectives defined and effectiveness of projects reviewed.

a) Objectives.

Broad objectives are stated. Difficult to evaluate, i.e. self awareness and motivation, effective communication skills, identifying satisfying area of work. Subjective assessment of outcomes. Employment not one of main objectives.

Overall objectives at national level. By implication they are general NEAT objectives. Operational objective is to provide funding for a variety of approaches for training the disadvantaged. Each program has its own aims and objectives. These are not always clearly defined or sufficiently specified to allow effective evaluation.

b) Defined mechanisms for evaluation.

Review and assessment part of function of State Offices coordinating programs. Little objective evidence to show whether improvement in literacy and numeracy leads to improvement in employment prospects.

Depends on individual projects. DEYA does require regular reporting. Difficult to evaluate achievement of increased self esteem and morale. DEYA believes programs not cost effective but little evidence available based on program objectives.

c) Community and participant participation in project evaluation.

Program facilitates student participation in assessing worth of project. Little evidence that community takes part in review. Probably will be facilitated in ACER review.

Probably on an ad hoc basis in some projects. Sometimes views are sought to change direction of project.

d) Independent research access.

Program is currently being evaluated by ACER.

Not facilitated by DEYA.

e) Publish results.

ACER results are to be published. Limited review and evaluation by TAFE of eight pilot projects has been published.

No research, either internal or external.

6. Program maximise permanent employment and create additional jobs.

a) Permanent employment.

Not the immediate goal. Program is seen more as an intermediate stage in obtaining permanent employment.

DEYA sees programs leading to permanent employment. Some coordinators at local level see projects as serving more intermediate steps. Basically depends on program and participant orientation. In some programs objective is more pre-training and building of confidence and self esteem. In these cases permanent employment seen as a future goal.

b) Additional job opportunities.  
Not substitution.

Does not involve the creation of new job opportunities. Designed to bring some of the unemployed to a more competitive position. Insofar as participants obtain employment in competition with other unemployed, has a substitution effect.

Encourages substitution. Some of the unemployed lifted above others. Generally participants are made more competitive. Projects do not provide additional jobs.

7. Programs based on future labour market needs and demands.

a) Oriented to future jobs.

Work skill section is a minor part. General remedial and compensatory education and basic skills only.

Projects are concerned at equalising opportunity in current labour market. Most coordinators see limited goals. Work skills and work experience are not oriented to future labour markets.

b) New careers.

No attempt is made to devise new careers.

No attempt is made to devise new careers.

8. Programs and projects emphasise program quality and participant satisfaction.

a) Program standards.

Depends on program. Many programs operate off-campus to overcome negative feelings of participants.

Facilities, conditions and equipment can vary between programs. Funding usually provided on 'minimum adequate standard' basis by DEYA.

b) Participant recognition.

Generally programs recognise need to enhance self esteem of participants. Attempts to provide for needs of students and to a certain extent let them set their own pace. The training allowance is equivalent to the unemployment benefit.

Usually seen as a particularly important part of the program. Programs attempt to meet participant goals. This is a group-based program, where a meaningful wage is paid to participants, in recognition of their participation.

9. Programs for volunteers, not conscripts.

a) Voluntary participation.

It is not known whether pressure is put on applicants to enroll by pointing out that no other program is available, or that they will not be employable without participation.

Participation is voluntary but it is not known whether individuals are pressured into enrolling by the knowledge that no other program is available or that they will not be employable without participation.

b) Choice of program.

Limited choice for participants. Either between EPUY groups which are relatively few in number or between other programs catering for same needs.

Little choice available to participants over the age of 25. Choice between NEAT projects not available because of limited number of projects. Possible that disadvantaged could be given extended NEAT on-job subsidy but no support structure built into NEAT on-job provisions.

c) Access.

Very limited because of few courses operating and by lack of adequate allowance while training. Eligibility for young people only.

Very limited number of projects. Programs often not publicised. Not other supports built into programs to enhance participation although some allowances available for living away from home, for dependents, etc.

10. Programs open to all workers, priority for the unemployed, positive discrimination for the disadvantaged unemployed.

a) Equalise opportunity.

This is a specific program for the young disadvantaged. Attempts to provide basic literacy and numeracy skill to equalise opportunity and improve competitiveness. The 'older' disadvantaged cannot obtain this assistance in any other program, except in a few cases with NEAT Special Groups.

Is a program specifically for disadvantaged people. Very few projects are funded. Few unemployed therefore have the opportunity.

b) Positive discrimination.

Positively discriminates towards those young people with severe literacy and numeracy problems. But little incentive financially towards participation in these groups.

For those with needs for special support and remedial assistance. Criteria for participation differs from project to project. Most projects attempt to cater for a specific group of disadvantaged.

# CHART

## PROGRAM

## COMMUNITY YOUTH SUPPORT SCHEME (CYSS) :

## NEAT HANDICAPPED YOUTH PROGRAM (NHYE)

### Program Description (Basic)

Locally run, support program to help maintain motivation and morale of unemployed young people. Attempts to provide information about finding and keeping a job, provides recreational and interest expanding activities and involves participants in 'meaningful' activity until the employment situation improves.

Higher rate, longer duration 'on-job' subsidies provided under NEAT scheme without usual eligibility criteria, to encourage employers to give training and work experience to various categories of handicapped youth. Assistance introduced on an experimental basis now under review.

### PROGRAM PRINCIPLES

#### 1. Programs nationally planned and locally controlled.

##### a) Broadly based guidelines.

Comprehensive and restrictive guidelines at national level. Objectives stated but little freedom at local level for local program designers. Guidelines administered when determining projects that will be approved, but the values and policies on which decisions about funding and refunding are based are not made public, nor are reasons for decisions.

As an experimental measure guidelines about eligibility and format of assistance were broadly based. State administrators able to use the higher subsidies in an innovative fashion. In Victoria the assistance used in special schools in addition to individual application at CES offices. Recent changes limited eligibility by excluding the 'socially disadvantaged' and reduced the period of subsidy. Application of the assistance to students at special schools has also been restricted.

##### b) National mechanisms for review.

One national overall review has been carried out but has not been made public. In the first year of operation there were few specific information feedback mechanisms. Scheme design does not include mechanisms for evaluation. Difficult to evaluate concepts such as 'maintenance of morale' and 'support'. Evaluation reports not distributed to local program management. Opinions expressed by participants and project officers appear not to have been used because new guidelines are at variance with conclusions reached.

As an 'experimental' program the scheme is reviewed according to local subjective experience and to priorities within DEYA. No specific inbuilt mechanisms for national evaluation.

##### c) National mechanisms for future planning.

Significant changes of emphasis in guidelines reflect administrative tightening more than the results of on-going evaluation. Little indication that the planning of the scheme has effectively taken account of recognised trends in the labour market, e.g. that unemployment may be long term.

Little evidence that this measure of assistance represents part of a developing strategy for the disadvantaged, although experience of the scheme may be used in future planning.

d) Mechanisms to establish working relationships.	Very much left to local initiative. Local project administration required to prepare a list of appropriate relevant bodies to whom CYSS participants may be referred if their needs are outside the guidelines. Few attempts at national level to develop working relationships with other agencies.	Left for individual state administrations to determine. In Victoria this has been done with special schools and the Social Welfare Department.
e) Local project design.	Emphasis is on local design to meet local needs. However, proposal must be approved at state level to meet national restrictive guidelines. After approval little departure from guidelines accepted. Problems can arise in designing programs to meet needs of individuals before contact is established, however special funding is available from DEYA for initial research into feasibility of a CYSS program and the needs of individuals in the area.	Not many local projects. Generally the assistance has been administered on an individual basis by CES and by specialist counsellors servicing 'handicapped' institutions, hospitals, rehabilitation centres, etc.
f) Local project administration.	Projects are administered locally but certain basic decisions, particularly variations to activities, budget allocations, etc. cannot be made locally.	As above.
g) Local project coordination.	Depends on the project. Locally projects are responsible for coordinating with other local resources but this does not necessarily or consistently occur. Some projects have established a range of sound working relationships.	The CES must coordinate and liaise with local institutions and other organisations, particularly when obtaining documented evidence that an applicant is physically or psychologically disadvantaged.
h) Local review and project modification.	Projects are responsible for general review in conjunction with DEYA field officers. Not much ability to modify project during a funding period. Modifications, however, can be made at refunding time within the limitations of the guidelines. Some projects unilaterally modify programs. Very little information feedback about successes or failures of other projects is available at local level from DEYA.	Only indirectly. See (e) above.
<u>2. Programs planned in relation to other programs and ensuring comprehensive coverage.</u>		
a) Variety of functions.	Some variety of functions permitted but limited to general work orientation discussions, recreational activities, voluntary service. Mainly passive activities. Functions such as education, training counselling, placement not permitted. Individual projects sometimes involve themselves in performing some of these functions but generally they are outside the scope of the program guidelines.	While NHYP can be used as a 'special course' and on an individual basis it is basically a work experience/training program.



b) Complement other programs.

Some cooperation with DEYA is specified. Few formal links created on an overall level with other relevant agencies. Local administration has responsibility to create links with local bodies. To the extent that CYSS can act as a holding operation it can complement other programs such as NEAT and EPUY for which there is a four month unemployment condition of eligibility. Generally, however, these programs include activities covered by CYSS, and CYSS is not seen as a prerequisite. CYSS may complement SYETP but it has never been seen as a complementary program. It does not conflict with other programs.

There is some overlap between this program and the measures of assistance available under the National Employment and Training System for handicapped applicants. This results in a situation where a young 'handicapped' person can be eligible for assistance under two programs, each providing different levels of subsidy amount and duration, but both programs attempting to achieve similar objectives. While assistance under NHYP offers a higher amount of subsidy to employers, assistance generally available under NEAT for handicapped people offers a longer duration of subsidy, i.e. up to one year. It is not known whether the provisions of NEAT for handicapped persons are widely used in the CES in preference to NHYP.

c) Local projects multifunctional.

Fragmentation of functions very apparent. Cannot deal with employment, social welfare counselling, personal counselling, manufacturing goods for profit etc. Some local projects attempt to link up with other projects so that a variety of needs can be catered for, each project specialising in different functions. Only relevant when geographically close.

Only a few local projects.

d) Local projects maximise continuity.

No planned continuity between existing programs. No specific end of program. Participant attends until he is either employed or no longer interested. There is no guarantee of continuity of service and limited ability to meet changing needs of participants as guidelines specifically prohibit certain activities.

By providing a heavily subsidised initial six week period followed by a standardised subsidy duration there is some continuity of service. The program has some capacity to lead on from institutional or medical services. However at the end of the subsidy duration there is no guarantee of employment and no program to follow. There is no other support structure to complement program.

3. Projects developed and funded for a guaranteed period.

a) Guaranteed funding period.

Guaranteed funding period, but short term. At the end of each funding period a new submission must be made. Project funds can be terminated or suspended if project deviates from guidelines. Funding is usually only for short period - six months to one year. Projects are not guaranteed refunding, which depends on demand and success of initial project. Thus an intermittent funding situation with little security for administrators or time to develop ideas and programs.

NHYP is mainly an on-going program for individuals but 'courses' can be funded, for the duration of the course only.

b) Uses local funding structures.

The funding of projects is approved at a state level and finance is obtained by the project auspices, which in the majority of cases have been created specially for the project. Local funding is sometimes obtained to fund non-CYSS activities within existing CYSS projects or to supplement a CYSS project.

Where course based this may occur. Individual assistance provided through DEYA.

## c) Maximum local control of funds.

Funding is on an 'advance' basis. Reallocation of funds within project subject to central approval. Rigid guidelines for control and payment. Two-weekly reimbursement of claims. Project officers can spend significant amounts of time on financial matters. Problem is one of accountability. Most CYSS groups are unincorporated bodies.

See above.

4. Projects should be planned to facilitate participation of local community and participants.

## a) Community participation.

In theory essential part of project is to obtain community support at each stage. Establishment of auspice is first task. The local committee is an important part of program structure. Guidelines restrict and limit nature of participation.

Not used much on a project (course) basis. As a subsidy scheme for individuals no participation by community.

## b) Involvement of participants.

Depends on individual project. Generally not built into projects by virtue of guidelines. However, participants can be members of project committees and often are.

Little capacity to facilitate participant involvement in administration or review as assistance is determined and administered within DEYA.

5. Project objectives defined and effectiveness of projects reviewed.

## a) Objectives.

Individual projects often have own objectives. Difficult to assess achievement of objectives of CYSS program itself as related to growth/personal development/morale maintenance concepts and there is no program time limit over which this can be measured.

Broad objectives stated, basically related to provision of assistance to overcome disadvantage and encourage employers to offer training. Program is currently being reviewed.

## b) Mechanisms defined for evaluation.

Participant statistics are kept. Monthly reports are required by State Office. Mechanisms for evaluation related to objectives come mainly from participation of field officers employed by DEYA.

Mechanisms for evaluation are basically CES records of post subsidy employment. No other defined evaluative mechanisms.

## c) Community and participant participation in project evaluation.

Depends on individual projects. Many projects rely heavily on participant views. Usually token contribution and participation by community in evaluation.

Not done.

## d) Independent research access.

DEYA does not fund independent research. Independent projects may allow outside access to data and discussions with participants.

Not facilitated.

## e) Publish results.

National reviews done by DEYA are published on an ad hoc basis and usually not until well after the completion of the review. The national review of CYSS completed in November 1977 has not yet been released despite numerous requests.

No evaluation studies have been published.

6. Programs maximise permanent employment and create jobs.

a) Permanent employment.

While permanent employment may flow from achievement of objectives, it is not the aim of the program.

Program attempts to maximise permanent employment but as with all DEYA subsidy programs there is no legal obligation for employer to retain employee after expiration of subsidy. NHYP assistance can be usefully used for work experience.

b) Additional job opportunities.  
Not substitution.

While individual participants may benefit from participation, CYSS can encourage substitution by presenting employers with applicants who employers perceive as being more motivated. Other unemployed people who cannot, or do not, participate can thus be pushed to the bottom of the labour market. Some projects have been responsible for encouraging employers to create jobs. These are in the minority and such activity is not encouraged by the guidelines. Entrepreneurial activities are prohibited.

Possible but unlikely that new jobs are created. Generally a substitution effect occurs. Program is not meant to create jobs.

7. Programs based on future labour market needs and demands.

a) Oriented to future jobs.

It is not the function of CYSS to be involved in employment. Little information about future labour market demands is available.

Not a feature of this program, Aim is to obtain a variety of training/work experience positions for handicapped youth.

b) New careers.

No effort is made to devise new career structures.

Is not concerned with opening up or developing new careers.

8. Programs and projects emphasise program quality and participant satisfaction.

a) Program standards.

Varies, according to individual projects. Provision of facilities and equipment depend basically on the good will of the community. Funding limitations on quality is detrimental to program standards. Wages paid to project staff are not high. Little attempt to ensure quality trained staff are available or hired even though new guidelines stipulate that project officers must be approved by State Committee.

Not known to what extent the CES and employers attempt to provide special assistance and support above that offered to other subsidised young people.

b) Participant recognition.

Generally depends on the capacity of individual project officers and the activities and philosophy of individual projects.

Possibly. The higher initial subsidy may open up jobs previously unavailable. The quality of follow up is not known but this is a crucial determinant of participant satisfaction in a program for the disadvantaged.

9. Programs for volunteers,  
not conscripts.

a) Voluntary participation.

Although participation is voluntary, there is danger that both the community and employers may see lack of participation as reflecting lack of motivation. Employer preference for CYSS participants, based on this assumption, could create a subtle coercive pressure to join the program, whether the content was viewed as meaningful or not.

The program is voluntary.

b) Choice of program.

Limited, particularly in country areas. Not a range of projects available or a range of activities in these projects. Designed as a holding project.

Some choice possible - between NHYP, NEAT standard or extended on-job and possibly a few NEAT groups. In practice the CES makes the choice as few applicants are aware of the distinctions between the different subsidy schemes for disadvantaged young people.

c) Access.

Whilst the program is theoretically open to all young unemployed, there is not enough funding to create the optimum number of projects and sub-projects to cater for them if they wished to participate. Many projects not geared to handle most difficult or withdrawn young unemployed without extra staff resources. Difficult for one project to cater for the diverse age and social groups which might be attracted. Many unemployed geographically isolated and \$6 travel allowance is not sufficient. Programs are flexible enough to cater for ad hoc or intermittent participation.

Few back-up and/or support services provided by DEYA. However in the case of physically handicapped financial assistance to modify working conditions and machinery is available. Program is not designed to maximise access of the disadvantaged to the program but more to encourage employers to employ and train certain categories of the disadvantaged registered with the CES.

10. Programs open to all workers, priority  
for the unemployed, positive  
discrimination for the disadvantaged  
unemployed.

a) Equalise opportunity.

Projects do not have the tools required to provide for the needs of the most disadvantaged although groups sometimes try to attract such participants. Activities such as remedial and compensatory education are not supposed to be funded under CYSS. Only equalise opportunity in the sense that anything is better than nothing.

The provision of higher rate subsidies can equalise opportunity for the disadvantaged in obtaining employment. However scheme is limited to certain categories of disadvantaged. Some disadvantaged young people are not eligible.

b) Positive discrimination.

No positive discrimination for the most disadvantaged. Tends to cream off the best of the unemployed. Depends on philosophy of project officer.

Specifically discriminates in favour of young disadvantaged unemployed people who are physically or intellectually/psychologically disadvantaged.

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19. The values and assumptions in this report are basically drawn from the Brotherhood Affirmations. The Affirmations are an internal document which sets down the basic beliefs accepted by most Brotherhood workers, and which is dynamic and open to change. In turn the Brotherhood Affirmations have been influenced by Christian and social work values and such seminal documents as the United Nations' Declaration of Human Rights.

## 5. FUTURE EMPLOYMENT POLICIES AND STRATEGIES FOR THE UNEMPLOYED

This chapter attempts to set an appropriate direction for future manpower programs. It assumes that it is impossible and undesirable to identify and develop manpower programs for disadvantaged workers without first developing a comprehensive manpower strategy for all the unemployed. The conclusions and recommendations put forward may not be palatable to a government committed to limiting public sector expenditure and to non-interventionist economic strategy. Nevertheless, the social costs of continuing unemployment are high, and these costs cannot be offset without a substantial commitment of resources.

### Who should benefit from manpower programs?

In Australia, the resolution of this question has usually reflected considerations of expediency and expenditure rather than principle. However, if the matter is resolved in principle first, appropriate methods of implementation can then be developed. If necessary, a short-term incrementalist strategy can be adopted.

Initially, it is a question of whether or not manpower programs should be open to both the employed and the unemployed. In a situation of full employment, both groups are encouraged to participate in programs. In a situation of high unemployment, however, priority tends to be given to the unemployed. At this point a further question arises: should manpower programs be open to all or only some of the unemployed?

One value already stated in this report is that there should be a right to work for everyone who wants to exercise that right. It is recognised that such a declaration of principle is difficult to realise in practice. However, the logic of the value is that if work is unavailable those who want to work and can not have a right to a manpower program designed to provide eventual access to work. Providing programs for only some of the unemployed encourages a 'creaming off' process, because those defined as most able to take advantage of programs are initially or progressively selected for programs. But unless programs include some special provisions that are deliberately targeted towards the disadvantaged unemployed, this section of the unemployed will continue to remain relatively disadvantaged.

It has been argued that if the existing resources of manpower programs were to be spread to cover all unemployed people, the assistance offered to each person would suffer in quality, and that it is therefore better to help a few people adequately than to help many inadequately. However, the present inadequacy of resources is not an immutable given, but the result of decisions by governments.

This is related to another argument: that the community is not willing to provide the resources necessary to meet the needs of all the unemployed, because the community does not believe that all the unemployed deserve assistance. However, if the community was given more information about the causes and nature of unemployment, the available options, and the consequences of different decisions, community attitudes might change significantly.

Furthermore, while manpower programs do not provide a solution to the problem of unemployment, they do meet some of the social needs of unemployed people, and the exclusion of a majority of the unemployed from manpower



programs may result in increased social and political alienation.

The view taken in this report is that, in a comprehensive manpower strategy, opportunities should be made available for all the unemployed with special built-in provisions aimed at those who are relatively more disadvantaged. The questions to be answered, therefore, are what sort of opportunities should be provided, how can manpower programs be developed to provide these opportunities, and what political and economic changes are necessary to facilitate them. In Section 3, a broad overview of existing strategies has been presented. To determine which of these strategies, or what mix of strategies, should be developed it is necessary to review the effect of the existing strategies.

#### Macro-economic Strategies

The Government's central strategy appears to be to stimulate the private sector to encourage economic growth and a return to profitability, in the belief that such conditions will increase employment opportunities. The consequences of this economic strategy on manpower programs is to redirect schemes such as the NEAT on-job program away from development of labour efficiency and potential towards providing a financial stimulus to employers who are seen to be leading the economic recovery. The financial stimulus to employers also received a massive boost with the introduction of the SYETP subsidy scheme, which was allocated over \$80m in the 1978-79 financial year. The effectiveness of this scheme as an employment-creating mechanism has now been seriously questioned because it does not appear to add to the stock of jobs, but instead allows those young people whose employment would attract a subsidy to their employer to compete more effectively against older job-seekers.

In any case, there is now a great deal of evidence which shows that the theory upon which the Government's macro-economic strategy is based - that there is a direct link between productivity, profitability and employment - is not always valid. Many employers have increased productivity and profitability while reducing staff.

The Government continues to argue that its strategies will eventually create sufficient jobs. It is believed that this strategy is misguided and the Government's policy of allowing and encouraging present trends in economic development will result instead in:

- \* increasing automation in the secondary and tertiary sector;
- \* increasing productivity and profitability in the mining sector;
- \* an overall loss of jobs.

The only realistic solution to the problem of unemployment is for the state to intervene more actively to create employment opportunities. Until employment opportunities increase, no labour efficiency strategy can do more than provide the substitution of certain categories of the unemployed for others.

#### Employment Redistribution Strategies

The Government is not publicly pursuing an employment redistribution strategy, however, existing manpower programs have this consequence, because the emphasis on youth programs redistributes program and

job opportunities away from adults. Furthermore, it is often argued that aged workers should have the option of early retirement, and that married women are replacing youth in the workforce. These arguments rely on the distribution of work opportunities away from aged and married women workers.

### Labour Efficiency Strategies

Present manpower programs are directed towards improving the efficiency and employability of labour in the expectation of economic recovery. Their effectiveness is therefore dependent on the success of the Government's macro-economic strategies.

Programs that are aimed at rehabilitating, occupying, motivating and training the unemployed lose their point unless jobs are eventually obtained.

The longer workers are removed from a normal work environment, the greater are their feelings of alienation and stigmatisation. While this inevitable psychological process may be cushioned by manpower programs which simulate the work situation, it cannot be reversed.

### Job Creation Strategies

While the Government claims that the long-term result of its policies will be the creation of jobs, it appears to be opposed to a direct job creation strategy.

There is a precedent in Australia for such a strategy - the Regional Employment Development (RED) scheme. The introduction of this scheme was a recognition of the fact that, in a period of high unemployment, a comprehensive manpower and training scheme requires a concurrent and complementary job creation scheme.

Most OECD countries have active job creation programs. It is being accepted increasingly in overseas countries that the cost of job creation programs is far less than it appears. Mukherjee argues that governments can recover as much as 100% of the cost when an unemployed person obtains work.<sup>1</sup> The Expenditure Committee of the House of Commons in the United Kingdom concludes that the Government claims back up to three-fifths of the wage of an unemployed person.<sup>2</sup>

Professor R. F. Henderson<sup>3</sup> argues that the tertiary sector is the most appropriate sector for absorbing the unemployed and new entrants to the workforce, in particular, that there are employment possibilities in educational, geriatric, health, welfare, children's and mental services. The possibilities for the unemployed in these areas are in sub-professional or para-professional jobs. Such jobs could include counsellor aide, medical aide, teacher aide and social worker aide.

In a recent Brotherhood proposal for a pilot project in job creation, entitled A Local Employment Program (LEP), emphasis has been given to creation of jobs in the tertiary sector which are relevant to the needs of the local community. Such a concept envisages the need for, and the development of new careers.

The Conservation of Urban Energy Group<sup>4</sup> sees job creation as primarily occurring in the tertiary sector through, for example, energy conservation.

The group's proposal for low-energy, labour-intensive industry is aimed at maximising the number of jobs wherever high energy, capital-intensive industry minimises the number of jobs. The present investment of \$1,000m in Australia's uranium mining industry has created only 2,000 jobs. The envisaged total number of jobs in this industry is between 13,000 and 14,000. Employment prospects in the newly established uranium mining industry are, therefore, not very extensive.<sup>5</sup>

By contrast, Andrews<sup>6</sup> has estimated that a solar energy industry in Australia could employ 70,000 people over the period of 1980 to 2000 - an industry somewhere near the size of the present car industry. This would mean that, by the year 2000, 20% of Australia's current level of end-use energy would be provided from solar collectors. The collectors would be used for space, water and industrial process heating. Andrews further estimates an initial capital investment of \$20,000 to create each new solar job - \$75m per year between 1980 and 2000. This compares favourably with the \$543m per year required until the year 2008 to finance brown coal developments.

In 1978, the Californian State Government passed legislation to promote the use of solar energy. Under this legislation, low and middle income consumers, small businesses and cities will be able to obtain loan funds for the installation of solar equipment. Furthermore, direct low-interest loans will be available to small solar businesses starting up in areas of over 20% unemployment and/or which employ more than 20% of those previously unemployed for six months or more.

It has been estimated that the use of solar energy for space and water heating in residences and commercial buildings, and for industrial process heating could create 376,815 jobs in California between 1981 and 1990. This level of job creation in 1977 would halve California's unemployment rate.<sup>7</sup>

When jobs are created they should meet the following criteria:

- \* Add to the number of existing jobs and so increase the overall stock of jobs. Employers should not be subsidised to hire workers when recruitment takes place as the result of business expansion or labour turnover.
- \* Include both formal and on-the-job training components, so that participants in job creation schemes become sufficiently skilled to enable work mobility.
- \* Provide permanent and long-term employment. Short-term job creation is satisfactory if it leads to long-term employment.
- \* Created in both the public and private sectors.
- \* Deliberately encourage industry to become labour-intensive, rather than capital-intensive.

If job creation schemes are to be successful, the need for experimentation must be accepted. Schemes should be initiated on a pilot basis, and then expanded if they prove to be effective. Furthermore, the introduction of a job creation strategy must be accompanied by a program of community education, aimed at developing understanding and acceptance of the need for job creation as a long-term solution to unemployment.

Finally, job creation cannot exist in isolation. Without adequate manpower planning, the number of jobs created will not exceed the number of jobs lost through

technological and structural change. In this report job creation is not just another RED scheme but the recognition that government intervention is necessary to create enough jobs for the present unemployed and for new entrants to the workforce.

This report will concentrate on direct methods of job creation in the public sector and through co-operatives and small business enterprises.

### Public sector job creation

The main objection to the introduction of a massive public sector job creation scheme is that it is seen to threaten the interests and survival of private enterprise. Regardless of the validity of this argument, the subjective reaction of the private sector is, in many ways, as important as the objective situation.

At the time of writing there were at least 450,000 unemployed people in Australia. To provide jobs for all these people means a massive creation of jobs on a scale which is unprecedented in the history of capitalist economies. The nearest equivalent is the New Deal program of Roosevelt in the 1930's. Even that job creation program deliberately refrained from employing more than 30% of the unemployed in public works because of the threat to private enterprise. In addition workers were only employed for short time periods.

While wartime economies present precedents for massive public manpower expenditures, and centrally planned economies give examples for wholesale labour absorption, it is unlikely that either the level of expenditure, or the restrictions and controls represented by increased central planning would be palatable or acceptable to the Australian public.

It is sensible, therefore, to fall back on an incrementalist job creation strategy that, nevertheless assumes that in the long-term, jobs should be created for all of the unemployed.

There have been a number of proposals for job creation programs which encompass an incrementalist strategy. For example, the Brotherhood proposal for a Local Employment Project could serve as a model for a large scale job creation program. It embodies the ten planning principles for manpower programs and attempts to define new areas for employment development.

#### Small business enterprises and co-operatives

It is increasingly being argued, both in Australia and overseas, that a partial solution to unemployment lies in the establishment of small business enterprises and co-operatives.

The arguments for the establishment of small business enterprises and co-operatives are:

- \* The labour needs of the traditional private sector are decreasing.
- \* The public sector cannot soak up the surplus labour without fuelling inflation and increasing an already extensive bureaucracy.
- \* Many employed and unemployed people are looking for alternative employment unlike the traditional jobs in the public and private sectors.



- \* Jobs in the existing public and private sectors are increasingly becoming institutionalised, de-skilled and bureaucratised.
- \* Small business enterprises and co-operatives are more responsive to the needs of individuals, than are large organisations.

In the U.K., Western Europe and the U.S.A. large firms are helping to create small business enterprises. For example, the British Shell Corporation has handled large-scale redundancies in recent years by encouraging the location of new and expanding industry in closure areas. A Merseyside company in the U.K., Tate and Lyle Ltd., is attempting a similar re-development of part of its workforce.<sup>8</sup> A steering group established by the Manpower Services Commission in the U.K. has recommended that the Commission should encourage large companies to 'contribute staff and resources to any or all of the various different stages in the creation of successful, employment-generating enterprises'. The steering committee suggests, for example that large companies could help in:

- \* identifying marketable products;
- \* designing a new production unit;
- \* seconding managerial and technical staff.<sup>9</sup>

In the U.S.A. there are more than 100 non-profit and profit Community Development Co-operatives supported by the Government.<sup>10</sup> Community Development Co-operatives are organised and controlled by local residents to develop the economy of a given community.

Action Industries of Venice, California, for instance, operates three petrol stations, two food stores, a milk bar, a catering service and landscape gardening service.<sup>11</sup>

The New Zealand Government has supported co-operatives by providing job opportunities through an existing special work scheme. Workers who register for employment and are unable to obtain any other work are eligible for special work. Special work is restricted to essential work which had previously been deferred because of lack of staff, or because it had been given a low priority.<sup>12</sup>

In the U.K., a government-funded co-operative development agency with a budget of £(U.K.)300,000 a year has been established. The objective of the agency is to promote the co-operative movement and act as a central information and research centre for co-operatives.<sup>13</sup> Interest in co-operatives in the U.K. stems from:

- \* co-operatives formed as a direct result of economic and industrial problems during the 1970's. Some workers have simply refused to allow their places of employment to be closed down;
- \* older co-operatives, mainly in the shoe and textile industries, which employ about 2,000 workers;
- \* co-operatives funded through the Industrial Common Ownership Movement set up in 1973 to administer a revolving loan fund providing small loans for industrial common ownership.<sup>14</sup>

In Australia, there has been limited funding for some co-operatives, but the co-operatives funded have tended to be short-term projects for the young unemployed. In this country co-operatives are seen as a short-term

solution to unemployment rather than as the beginning of the establishment of a new industrial base.

The N.S.W. Government is providing \$150,000 for three large scale and five small scale co-operatives, in the belief that co-operatives could well provide useful and beneficial activities for the unemployed. The activities of the co-operatives include contracting for part-time and casual work, providing practical courses in various technical and craft skills and community service projects. In addition, the co-operatives will enable young people to meet on a social basis. If the pilot program succeeds, the N.S.W. Government envisages an annual budget allocation of \$1 million for co-operatives.<sup>15</sup>

The Victorian Employers Federation suggests that not enough additional jobs will be found in the existing public and private sectors to enable a substantial reduction in unemployment. The VEF argues that there is a need to encourage small, labour intensive industries.<sup>16</sup>

In Victoria, there is also a proposal for the establishment of a Small Business Assistance Program.<sup>17</sup> The overall objective of the program is to encourage groups of unemployed people to form viable businesses in their own communities, create employment opportunities and eventually repay investments with appropriate interest of dividends. In closing the 'Work for Tomorrow' Conference on the 14 December, 1978, the Premier, Mr. Hamer, said that the Government would fund three appropriate pilot small businesses/co-operatives and provide funds to assist in the establishment of community-based employment programs that do not qualify for assistance under existing programs. Subsequently, the Victorian Government has set aside \$500,000 for community programs up until the end of June 1980.<sup>18</sup>

There are three critical factors in establishing a successful small business or co-operative: management, finance, and the length of time allowed for establishment. Proposals examined by the Brotherhood have usually tended to be inadequately planned, and lacking in sufficient consideration of pricing, marketing and demand strategies. Many problems facing small business enterprises and co-operatives arise from the absence of sufficient capital and sufficient operating funds.

At present there are virtually no sources of funds for enterprises of this type in Australia. If a small business or a co-operative is to succeed, sufficient time is necessary to enable the development of experience and expertise. This can take up to two or more years, and funding should therefore be available for that time period.

Other factors that make the establishment of small businesses and co-operatives difficult are that economically the trend is towards increasing business concentration, so that small business enterprises are finding it difficult to survive; many of the unemployed are ill-equipped to move into small business enterprises and co-operatives, because they lack sufficient knowledge, experience and expertise; and public apathy towards the desirability of small businesses and co-operatives.

There are some indications, however, that the possibilities for small businesses and co-operatives will increase. To a large extent, this will depend on the existence of a political climate in which small businesses and co-operatives are seriously discussed as options for the future.

The Government should support the establishment and development of co-operatives. Such support, however, should not be given on the basis of providing a congenial framework for the unemployed. To see

co-operatives as a short-term measure for usefully diverting the unemployed is to ensure the failure of such co-operatives. Co-operatives should be viewed as alternate business enterprises, not as welfare programs for the unemployed.

A job creation strategy must have both short-term and long-term components. In the long-term, government intervention through manpower and economic planning is necessary to create and save jobs. Colombo<sup>19</sup> has recommended the following policies for the industrialised countries of Western Europe:

- \* The enactment of laws which provide for the protection of the environment and the health of workers and citizens, as well as for the restoration of an ecological equilibrium. Such laws should be framed in a way which exposes all the costs, social and otherwise, of wrong and dangerous technological choices.
- \* A system of incentives and disincentives designed to encourage decentralisation and prevent excessive urban congestion.
- \* Enforcement of the principle whereby industrial enterprises are called upon to bear, at least in part, the infrastructural costs, of their technological choices, such as roads, waterways, transport system, housing, etc.
- \* A decentralisation of public administration which ensures that government institutions are flexible enough to appreciate the character and needs of local industry, but nevertheless exert the necessary control over industrial development.

- \* The removal of unnecessary bureaucratic obstacles to innovative diversification and local entrepreneurship.
- \* The creation of Appropriate Technology Centres, which carry out research on appropriate technologies for industrialised countries, and disseminate information on these technologies and policy options aimed at favouring their development. Such centres could be linked with other structures designed to assist business to develop appropriate trade strategies.
- \* The organisation of financial assistance, for example, low interest credits and loans, at regional level, to small and medium size enterprises engaged in the development of appropriate technologies.
- \* Incentives to reduce the social security charges related to labour employed in enterprises practising appropriate technologies, so as to favour, within reasonable limits, the development of labour intensive low-cost technologies.

#### An Interim Strategy: the Revamping of Existing Programs

The thrust of this report is that job creation is the most effective and relevant employment strategy. However, it is acknowledged that it will take some time to formulate an appropriate strategy. While this strategy is being planned and developed, existing programs could be revamped. In the following pages an attempt is made to revamp existing programs within the manpower principles laid down earlier in the report.

The major manpower programs are grouped into four initiatives: a pre-training program, a work subsidy program, a vocational training program and a local initiatives program. This rationalisation attempts to reduce overlap and to tie the programs into services and facilities offered by DEYA and other agencies. It also attempts to offer a choice of programs to all the unemployed, particularly the disadvantaged unemployed, and to ensure that programs are locally-based and complement each other.

#### A pre-training program

The course-based programs for disadvantaged groups, that is, EPUY, NEAT Special Groups, aspects of NHYP and the courses for Aborigines, could be combined into a special and flexible program with a pre-training emphasis. In essence, all these programs provide remedial and compensatory educational opportunities in a supportive setting, with an emphasis on life and personal skills.

This revamped program is based on the fact that many people cannot move to open employment or basic vocational training without first obtaining certain basic skills, which may be social, educational or personal.

This program is designed to be responsive to needs as they are perceived at the local level. It should encourage a diversity of approaches to meet specifically identified needs. This was the intention of the NEAT 'Special Groups' program when originally introduced. It is also a guiding principle of EPUY courses in Victoria. It is essential to ensure that trainees will progress from this pre-training course to either another program or to employment. It is important that graduates of pre-training programs are not left to languish in CES offices.

This envisaged pre-training program could be run jointly by DEYA and the Commonwealth, and State Education Departments. A steering committee similar to that operating under EPUY could be established, or alternatively, the current EPUY committee could be extended. This program attempts to derestrict both the EPUY and NEAT programs, and offers one funding source for a variety of approaches to fulfilling the needs of the unemployed. It does lean towards provision of services to the disadvantaged who have difficulties in obtaining jobs even during periods of full employment and/or in coping with standard training courses.

The aim of the program is to help individuals overcome social or educational barriers to further training and/or employment. The program should be open to all unemployed people and should provide remedial education, social and personal skills, work experience and basic skills training as required, for periods of up to six months. It is expected that most courses would not be held in school settings and where possible, would not overlap with or duplicate existing facilities. All participants should be paid the current NEAT allowance or higher.

Work experience could be an essential part of the course, and be provided either by extending the provisions of the State Work Experience Act, or by the application of subsidies under the provision of the Work Experience Subsidy Scheme detailed below.

The case for including vocational and pre-vocational courses for Aborigines under this program is not clear cut, and consideration of such a proposal is beyond the scope of this report.



### The work subsidy program

The three existing programs, SYETP, NHYP and NEAT (on-job), could be combined into one revamped work subsidy scheme. Currently, although these schemes have training elements on the whole, they do not often appear to provide people with particular skills which are transferable to similar jobs elsewhere; the acquisition of such skills seems to be incidental to the schemes.

Many individuals need experience of the work situation: to test vocational choice, to acquaint themselves with the obligations and routine of work, and to gain experience in a chosen field so that they can then compete more readily on the open market.

This work subsidy program provides the CES with a basic tool for encouraging employers to accept applicants for either training or work experience purposes. It is expected that use of the subsidy would be of particular relevance to disadvantaged CES applicants, and to graduates of the pre-training program. There would be no age limit, and it is not intended that participants would have to fulfil any criteria based on length of unemployment: in fact, no eligibility requirements, other than being unemployed, are envisaged.

Work subsidies to employers should be flexible in amount and duration and provided according to need. It is recognized that such a provision would be extremely difficult to implement and would rely heavily on the discretion of local CES officers. Nevertheless, it is seen as a desirable goal to work towards.

Employers are to be required to give an undertaking that, if training is provided, it should either lead to permanent employment in their establishment or to the

acquisition of skills which could be transferred to other occupations. In this respect, the envisaged work subsidy program is similar to the present NEAT on-job program.

It is expected that a two or three level subsidy would be required, recognising the contribution of employers, and the degree of individual disadvantage.

#### A vocational training program

The NEAT formal training scheme is the only successful and effective retraining program operating in Australia at present, and no substantial changes to it are proposed. However, the NEAT formal courses, including the development of courses and 'Skills in Short Supply' courses, could be strengthened by DEYA retaining and developing its labour market elements, and by forming closer links with the appropriate bodies - the ITC and TAFE. Concurrently, there should be some rationalisation and development of closer links between the various industry training committees of the three bodies. Co-ordination and liaison with new courses developed under the Local Initiatives Program described below would be necessary.

#### A local initiatives program

It is suggested that the CYSS should be broadened and derestricted and concentrate on the provision of new jobs either through direct job creation or through the funding of small businesses and co-operatives.

The program would continue to be conducted at a local level and to be nationally funded.

Within this program there would be provision for support, training, counselling and educational functions. The mix of functions would be determined at local level, taking into account local needs, the local employment situation and the support of the local community.

Projects that emphasised positive job creation would receive priority over those that emphasised welfare or recreational activities, but job creation initiatives would not pre-empt the development of such activities. Although the most pressing need is the creation of employment opportunities, and the provision of resources to projects that actively attempt to provide avenues into employment, it is recognised that the community must ultimately accept the need to expend resources to assist people make the adjustment to a more leisure-oriented society.

As projects under this program would vary greatly in scope, duration and emphasis, it is not possible to be specific about allowances to trainees. Generally, however, it is felt that projects emphasising job creation should pay trainee allowances - at least the training allowance currently paid under NEAT (\$82 per week for an adult). Guidelines would need to be drawn up for funding of co-operatives and small enterprises. The program, to be called the Local Initiatives Program (LIP), could gradually form the basic instrument of government manpower policy. Initially, it could be administered jointly by DEYA and the State welfare departments. It is expected that in the transition period, while communities are developing more appropriate employment strategies, funded projects would mainly consist of the existing CYSS projects. New projects would be assessed by the Manpower Boards described below.

### Manpower boards

It is believed that all existing manpower programs suffer from inadequate community and participant involvement, consequently a structure to ensure and enhance this form of participation is suggested below.

In Sweden<sup>20</sup> all activities connected with labour market policy are administered at a central, regional and local level by one organisation. Furthermore, the operation of this organisation is dependent on tripartite co-operation between employers, employees and society.

The structure is comprised of a National Labour Market Board, 24 Country Labour Boards and District Employment Boards. Eleven members of the national Board's governing body are appointed by the Government; three by the Confederation of Trade Unions, two represent the Central Organisation of Salaried Employees, one the Confederation of Professional Associations and three represent the employers. In addition, there is one member representing female labour, one rural interests and representatives of staff. There is a similar representative structure on the Country Labour Boards and on the District Employment Boards.

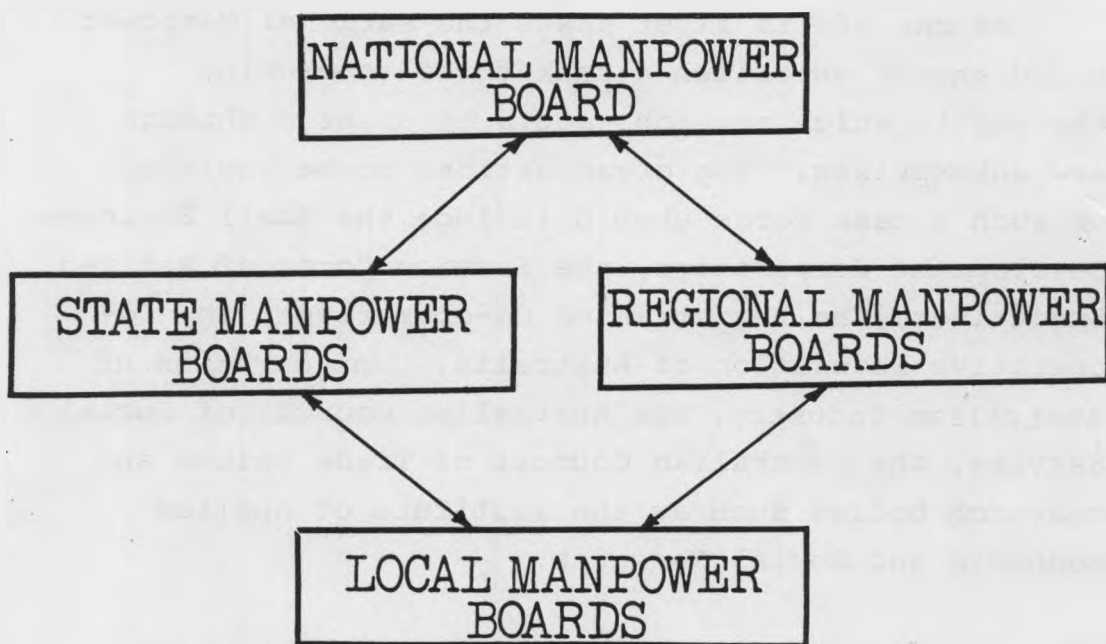
The representation of employees and employers is also used whenever working groups are established to investigate certain areas of the labour market. Employee and employer organisations thus take an active responsibility for decisions.

Their involvement at the decision-making level means that relatively quick decisions are possible about the various measures that are necessary, and about the facilities necessary to carry out these

measures without delay.

The Swedish Government's decision to involve employer and employee organisations in determining labour market policies reflects a traditional pattern, wherein most industrial reforms are based on the direct participation of the representative organisation of the parties involved in the labour market.

It proposed that the planning and implementation of manpower programs should be decentralised on the following basis:



The following groups would be represented on the national, state, regional and local manpower boards:

- \* Employers
- \* Unionists
- \* Educationalists
- \* Local government
- \* Federal government
- \* Community groups
- \* Unemployed people

Apart from its function of enabling participation the National Manpower Board will have a planning

function and be responsible for planning activities to cope with unemployment and labour shortages. It would also be responsible for the administration of legislative requirements in regard to consultation, and for ensuring that such consultation is carried out within the context of government policies for regional development. The Board would undertake other advisory and information activities connected with the location of business enterprises, establish guidelines for manpower programs, and overview the work of the state, regional and local manpower boards.

As one of its first tasks the National Manpower Board should establish a task force to examine the way in which new jobs could be created through new enterprises. The organisations to be included on such a task force should include the Small Business Development Corporation, the Service Corps of Retired Executives, the Registrar of Co-operatives, the Co-operative Federation of Australia, Confederation of Australian Industry, the Australian Council of Social Service, the Australian Council of Trade Unions and research bodies such as the Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research.

The task force's terms of reference should include:

- \* examining the possibilities for creating new enterprises and jobs,
- \* examining the relationships between new enterprises and the existing public and private sectors,
- \* examining the business skills required for running small businesses and co-operatives,
- \* identifying unmet needs in the community,

- \* recommending on the appropriate roles which industry, trade unions, and the co-operative movement could play in creating new jobs and enterprises,
- \* considering products for which there is a demand and which could be successfully marketed,
- \* recommending appropriate methods and providing sufficient capital and funds to enable the establishment and development of new enterprises,
- \* discussing the ways in which manpower programs could facilitate the establishment of new enterprises,
- \* recommending on the assistance which federal, state and local government could provide.

The Regional Manpower Boards would follow labour market developments and plan and undertake such measures as these developments may require, collaborate with schools and authorities in planning and supervising public vocational guidance, co-operate with private organisations in the areas affected by its activities, and, where appropriate, co-ordinate the activities of the local manpower boards.

An Information and Counselling Secretariat would be attached to each regional manpower board. Its functions would be to:

- \* provide access to all sectors of the community to course and career information,
- \* provide general and vocational guidance and counselling,

- \* give information about opportunities for re-entry to education,
- \* give information on the range of manpower programs and access to them,
- \* assist community groups to develop proposals for funding to meet local needs,
- \* serve as a referral point to other agencies, institutions and employers (for information).

The proposed functions of the Secretariat integrate the existing services, remove them from institutional control, localise them in the community and de-restrict their current use by certain sectors of the population. Existing elements of vocational guidance, careers centres, etc. should be decentralised and incorporated into these centres. It is realised that such integration may be a long-term process.

The Local Manpower Boards would facilitate manpower utilisation in the local area; prepare inventories of work and worker skills; design, administer and evaluate programs and projects; co-operate with the appropriate regional Manpower Board. Perhaps the most important work of the local manpower boards would be that of job development at local community level.

Particular staff known as Job Developers would be required to work initially with the unemployed, and then with employers to tailor jobs for the unemployed. Job development is concerned with revising employment structures to provide meaningful job opportunities, developing a system of supportive services for new workers and employers, and eliminating traditional barriers to employment. Job development involves understanding the dynamics of the local labour market, the



power structure of the community and the internal workings of companies in the immediate area.

Employment opportunities in traditional areas could be limited and it will therefore be necessary to develop new careers. The development of new career possibilities will involve an analysis of community needs, agency activities and job needs, in order to arrive at an understanding of where and how new career jobs can solve manpower or service delivery problems.

#### Other measures to support the interim strategy

The above changes to existing manpower programs and the supporting new structure of manpower boards are summarised in the table at the end of this section of the report. However, other changes are required to complement and facilitate the interim strategy. These changes are noted below:

a) Unemployment benefit

Unemployment benefit should be paid to any person actively seeking full-time work who performs voluntary community service during this period. Such a change to benefit regulations should be made public.

b) Work Experience Act

It is understood that a working party is currently redesigning the State Work Experience Act to include the participation of those young unemployed persons who are not school students. This working party was created as a result of the recommendations

of various school/work transition studies, and more recently by the evaluations of the Victorian EPUY programs. These recommendations are supported because a flexible work experience provision for all unemployed complements the suggested revamped programs described above, particularly the work subsidy and pre-training programs. It is recognised however, that such a program is open to abuse by employers and to charges of cheap labour. Nevertheless if control can be exercised over the duration of work experience under the Act, and it can be restricted to a general educational or adaptational role, it could complement the work experience possibilities of a subsidy program - a program concentrating on work experience of a longer duration for younger people and general work experience for the older unemployed.

c) Educational courses

Serious consideration should be given to changing unemployment benefit regulations concerned with part-time education. At present, unemployed persons cannot receive benefit if they attend educational courses for more than eight hours per week. The educational opportunities and choices for school leavers are therefore largely dependent on the financial resources of their families. For example: 'A' may be admitted to a university and receive not only a privileged education but a Tertiary Education Assistance Scheme allowance of up to \$45.15. Young person 'B' may be taken on by an employer under the Special Youth Employment Training Program because of his eligibility for a four month \$45 weekly

subsidy. Young person 'C' may return to school because there are no jobs available in an attempt to improve her qualifications and depend on her parents or a part-time job for financial support. Young person 'D' may be unemployed and yet lose unemployment benefit because he is undertaking more than eight hours formal course work each week in order to attain better qualifications. Young person 'E' may be involved in a Community Youth Support Scheme and receive \$6, purportedly for travel expenses, as well as \$36 unemployment benefit. Young person 'F' may be a participant in an Education Program for Unemployed Youth and receive an allowance of unemployment benefit plus \$6. Finally, young person 'G' may be unemployed, looking for a job, but not receiving unemployment benefit because she is 15 years old. These different examples indicate the necessity for an examination of the relationship between unemployment benefit, TEAS and the NEAT training allowance, with a view to rationalisation. Apart from this need for rationalisation it seems anomalous that unemployed persons genuinely seeking to improve their employment prospects by taking educational or vocational courses are penalised.

d) Permissible earnings

At present, unemployed people lose a dollar of their unemployment benefit for each dollar earned over \$3 or \$6. The level of permissible earnings for the unemployed should be the same as it is for pensioners, that is \$20 per week and increasing for each child. Such a change is recommended by the Myers' Inquiry<sup>21</sup> into unemployment benefit policy and administration.

The reason for the recommendation is to encourage the unemployed to find and retain casual and part-time jobs. When permissible earnings are at such a low level, incentive to find such jobs is also reduced. This proposal could also be examined by the working party set up to consider the de-restriction of unemployment benefit legislation relating to part-time education.

In conclusion, it is impossible to develop an effective manpower program strategy merely by altering the specifics of existing individual programs. Indeed, current government manpower strategies demonstrate only too clearly the unfortunate results of making piecemeal alterations to one program without reference to others.

Therefore this report does not include the series of options for individual programs which was included in the interim report.

There is no simple or cheap solution to the problem of unemployment; the provision of jobs for all the unemployed will require substantial additional public expenditure. Nevertheless, funds presently being spent on labour efficiency programs could be more effectively utilised in direct job creation programs.

TABLE 3: SUMMARY OF PROPOSED CHANGES TO EXISTING PROGRAMS

FUNCTION	EXISTING PROGRAMS	PROPOSED NEW PROGRAMS	BASIC CHANGES
Subsidised work experience and training.	SYETP, NHYP, NEAT On-Job.	WSP - Work Subsidy Program.	Used as follow-on from other programs. Expand eligibility to all unemployed. Flexible duration of subsidy.
Provide cost of training in educational institutions and trainee allowances.	NEAT.	VTP - Vocational Training Program.	Include retraining. More skill shortage identification.
Innovative, experimental programs for unemployed people.	CYSS.	LIP - Local Initiatives Program.	Removes restrictions on activities. Provision of outreach workers. Jointly funded and administered by Federal and State Governments. Emphasise welfare and counselling. Include job seeking and placement functions.
Pre-training in basic job and life skills.	EPUY, NEAT Special Groups and NHYP.	PTP - Pre-training Program.	Oriented for all the disadvantaged. Higher rates of subsidy. Special subsidy for additional jobs. Encourage employment oriented programs for disadvantaged which are innovative and create new employment.
Community involvement in policy, design and implementation of programs.	Ad hoc and selective but generally excluded except CYSS.	Manpower Boards.	Maximise, formalise and legitimise community involvement. Increase community support for programs. Enhance the relevance of programs.

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## 6. MANPOWER POLICIES FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

### Definition of the Disadvantaged Worker

Adequately and usefully defining the disadvantaged worker is a difficult task, in view of the complex issues involved, and the diverse meanings given to the general term 'disadvantaged'. Consequently a number of key assumptions underlie the definition used in this report.

Firstly, 'disadvantaged' is considered to be a relative concept, with a significant number of factors determining the degree of disadvantaged status experienced by any one worker.

Secondly, most definitions of disadvantaged groups imply both causes and effects of disadvantaged status, and it is of critical importance that cause and effect be separated to prevent the common practice of examining effects as if they were causes.

Thirdly, the causes of disadvantaged status are multiple and complex, and it is the combination of causal factors which should concern those involved in manpower programs for disadvantaged workers.

Fourthly, definitions which identify particular groups of people as disadvantaged are generally dysfunctional, as they inevitably lead to the stigmatised identification and categorisation of these groups, and also encourage simplistic solutions, based on the characteristics of groups, rather than the multiple social and structural causes of the problem.



Fifthly, given the above assumptions, the definition should still be useful in identifying the disadvantaged, and in distinguishing degrees of disadvantaged status.

On the basis of the above assumptions the Brotherhood of St. Laurence has adopted a broad definition, but based this definition on the multiple causes of disadvantaged status to enable the definition to be operationally useful.

#### The Disadvantaged Worker - A General Statement

A disadvantaged worker is one who is excluded from the employment market, or who is likely to become excluded from the employment market because of economic and/or technological change, and who does not have the skills or work experience to gain further employment, or who is unable to gain access to appropriate manpower programs which would enable re-entry to the employment market.

#### Causal Factors - Structural

- \* The changing nature of the employment market, creating situations where workers' previous training no longer provides them with marketable skills and where their work skills become redundant.
- \* The reduction of available jobs, particularly in certain categories of employment, creating an over supply of workers seeking employment in these categories.

- \* The change in location of available employment, leaving some workers without jobs within reasonable distance of their homes.
- \* The inadequacy of existing education and preparation for employment, or the inadequacy of re-training programs and manpower programs available to workers without jobs.
- \* The provision of employment opportunities which are not satisfying because of lack of achievement, poor, noxious or dangerous conditions, limited recognition of significance of personal contribution, no opportunities to learn new skills to advance, or to gain, security.

#### Causal Factors - Social and Cultural

- \* The existence of active discrimination against certain workers in appointment to jobs, the allocation of tasks, opportunities for advancement and opportunities for security. Discrimination can affect a wide number of groups but is most common for women, migrants, Aborigines and sometimes the young.
- \* The existence of some form of physical, mental or social handicap which limits work opportunities and work satisfaction when employed. The nature of the handicap can be varied and may include language difficulties, limited educational opportunity and achievement, lack of work experience, as well as physical and emotional conditions.

- \* The experience of long-term absence from the workforce occasioned by illness, imprisonment, hospitalisation or other factors.
- \* The 'problem' of age, where workers find themselves in an age bracket which is not sought by the market. The problem of age may vary according to occupational groupings, but clearly younger and older workers experience the most disadvantage because of age.
- \* The experience of long-term rejection by the market, or repeated failure in employment, leading to a sense of failure, hopelessness and disinterest in work itself.

The causal factors are varied and there is a complex inter-relationship between structural causes and social causes of disadvantaged status. Independent of the cause, the effects of disadvantaged status are less complex, and are consistently experienced by disadvantaged workers.

#### The Effects

- \* Disadvantaged status results in economic insecurity, dependence on welfare systems and, for many workers, the experience of poverty.
- \* Disadvantaged status has a significant impact on personal self-esteem and results in a sense of hopelessness, aimlessness and failure.

- \* Family relationships and stability become threatened, and personal adjustment affected. The possible effects are family breakdown, anti-social behaviour, and recourse to personally and socially destructive forms of compensation and escape.

The effects of disadvantaged status are substantial in their impact on disadvantaged workers and their families. Sometimes specific services are necessary to deal with these effects. However these services are secondary to the causes of the problem, and will have no impact on disadvantaged status per se, nor on the employment needs of disadvantaged workers.

#### The Disadvantaged Worker - Some Specific Comments

The Social Welfare Department and the Brotherhood of St. Laurence are concerned with the situation of those workers who are most vulnerable to the structural and social causes of disadvantaged status. Some workers experience a combination of causal factors and are thus relatively more disadvantaged in the job market than others. When a number of factors combine, the relative disadvantage experienced by the worker is greater than any one factor in isolation. To be young, unskilled and Aboriginal, in a rural region is clearly more of a disadvantage than to be young, skilled and white, in the metropolitan area.

Consequently the use of rigid and exclusive categorisations, or classification systems for the disadvantaged is not recommended, because such an approach fails to take account of the diversity of problems experienced by the most disadvantaged worker. Equally manpower programs which operate on tightly categorised bases exclude the most disadvantaged for the very reason that they are unable to accept, and

cope with, the diverse structural and social factors which cause disadvantaged status.

Thus, the most disadvantaged workers are those who experience a variety of the causal factors of disadvantaged status, and as a consequence are the most likely to be excluded from the employment market and many existing manpower programs.

### The Size and Complexity of the Disadvantaged Worker Group

The implication of the previous definition and discussion about the disadvantaged worker is that not all unemployed people are disadvantaged and that there are degrees of disadvantage. The disadvantaged worker is a person who has one or several social characteristics which lessen his ability to obtain and retain work. These characteristics include: age, race, sex, place of residence, the possession of marketable skills, physical and mental handicap, educational background, long-term absence from the workforce. Some of these characteristics heavily disadvantage some workers whilst others are of less importance, for example, age is probably not as important as place of residence or the colour of a person's skin. Generally, the more of these social characteristics a worker has, the more disadvantaged he is, for example, a woman doctor may be disadvantaged to some extent by her sex and certain medical positions will not be open to her, but she is not as disadvantaged as a woman process worker who is disadvantaged both by her sex and her lack of marketable skills.

Disadvantaged workers can be either employed or unemployed. It should not be forgotten that many employed workers are disadvantaged and some employed workers are more disadvantaged than others. For example, a young female migrant shop assistant who left school at 15 years is more disadvantaged than a male plumber's apprentice who completed fifth form, yet both are employed. Similarly, some unemployed persons are more disadvantaged than others. For example, an unemployed builder's labourer is much more disadvantaged than an unemployed teacher.

Any analysis of the workforce should note that official workforce figures do not include the total

number of the unemployed because they exclude those people who have withdrawn from active participation in the workforce - the hidden unemployed. The hidden unemployed include school leavers who have been forced to return to school, older workers forced into retirement and married women. In fact, the hidden unemployed have many of the social characteristics which will disadvantage them in the labour market.

The latest figures on persons not in the workforce collected by the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) are already dated, but show the size of this group. In May, 1977, of 2,722,900 persons aged 15 to 64 years not in the workforce, the ABS found that (categories not mutually exclusive):

- \* 401,700 intended to look for full-time or part-time work in the following 12 months;
- \* 65,000 were discouraged job seekers, that is, they wanted a job but were not looking for work because they believed that there were no suitable jobs in their locality, that employers considered them too young or too old, or that they lacked the necessary schooling, experience, etc.;
- \* 103,500 were full-time students, 15-20 years, who would have liked a job;
- \* 17,000 persons were not looking for work because they believed there were no jobs available with suitable hours.<sup>1</sup>

Although it is quite impossible to find a total figure and label it 'the number of disadvantaged workers' it is possible to look at particular social characteristics of the unemployed and observe the way in which a particular characteristic, such as age or sex, influences

the employment opportunities of some people in the community. The particular characteristics which will be examined are age, sex, race, place of residence and work skills.

### Age

Over many years there have been gradual changes occurring in the structure of the workforce; one of these changes has been the increasing incidence of unemployment among young people. In November 1978, the unemployment rate for persons below the age of 19 years was 16% which was, for that month, almost three times the national average.<sup>2</sup> This figure is probably a gross underestimate because it is young people who form a large part of the hidden unemployed: many re-enrol in educational institutions after their attempts to join the workforce have been frustrated.

One interesting trend which has been noted in the statistics about the age of the unemployed is that, while proportionately more young people are unemployed, they take considerably less time to find a job. For example, in November 1978, the average duration of unemployment for various age groups was:

15-19 years	-	23.0 weeks,
20-24 years	-	26.6 weeks,
25+ years	-	31.1 weeks. <sup>3</sup>

Another trend which seems to be emerging is that the unemployment rate amongst older people is also growing. This, too, is a group which is underestimated due to hidden unemployment as many older people become discouraged by employer rejection and withdraw from the workforce.



Age, as one social characteristic which is related to unemployment, is summarised in the following table which covers a period of six years.

TABLE 4: UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY AGE\*

Unemployment Rate of Various Age Groups							
Year	15-19 years	20-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55 + years	Total
1972	5.3	2.8	1.9	1.6	1.3	1.3	2.2
1974	5.2	2.9	1.6	1.6	1.1	0.7	2.0
1976	13.0	6.2	3.3	2.6	2.4	1.9	4.4
1978	16.8	9.2	4.7	3.6	3.5	3.2	6.2

\* Australian Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force, August, 1972, 1974, 1976, 1978.

### Race

Perhaps the most glaring example of the way in which race can affect an individual's employment opportunities is that of the national indigenous group, the Australian Aborigine. Few confirmed figures exist to illustrate the employment disadvantage which this group suffers, and those which do exist use as their base figure the 1971 Census (now seven years old).

At the end of November 1978, there were 15,506 Aborigines registered as unemployed with the Commonwealth Employment Service. Based on the 1971 Census, the Department of Employment and Youth Affairs has estimated that the Aboriginal workforce consists of 35,000 to 40,000 people, and the Department of Aboriginal Affairs estimates that 5,000 to 6,000 Aborigines do not register

with the Commonwealth Employment Service. The conclusion reached from these figures is that the unemployment rate amongst Aboriginal people is at least 50%.<sup>4</sup> This situation is expected to worsen in the future because more than 40% of the Aboriginal population is under 15 years of age.<sup>5</sup>

The differentials in the unemployment rate amongst workers born outside Australia (migrant workers) and Australian-born workers has remained relatively stable. The unemployment rate amongst overseas-born persons generally runs at 0.5-1% higher than that of Australian-born workers.

For example, the latest available figure collected in November 1978, showed the unemployment rate of workers born in Australia was 5.7%, whilst that of workers born outside Australia was 6.2%, a difference of 0.5%. The same figures show that more recent arrivals are more disadvantaged and that persons who arrived in Australia during the 23 months before the figures were collected had an unemployment rate of 14.7%, almost three times the national unemployment rate.<sup>6</sup>

When studying the degree of disadvantage suffered by migrants in the workforce the most significant consideration is that the unemployment rate has increased substantially over the past few years, even though the rate of entry of migrants into the workforce has been much lower during the same period.

### Sex

The most striking change in the structure of the workforce in the last decade has been the increased participation by women workers. In 1965, the rate of workforce participation by women was 34.2%. Ten years later, this figure had increased to 42.1% and the most

recent figure is 43.4% in 1978. In the ten years between 1965 and 1975 the workforce participation of women increased by 7.9% and actually dropped by 2.9% for men in the workforce.<sup>7</sup>

Women are generally more prone to unemployment than men, but this differential is increasing as unemployment worsens. The following table shows this trend. For example, in 1972, the differences in the unemployment rate of men and women was 1.1%, but in 1978 it was 2.0%. It is also significant that the unemployment rate for women in each listed year is always greater than that for men.

TABLE 5: UNEMPLOYMENT RATE BY SEX\*

Year	Unemployment Rate		
	Men	Women	Total
1972	1.8	2.9	2.2
1974	1.6	2.8	2.0
1976	3.7	5.6	4.4
1978	5.5	7.5	6.2

\* Table collated from Australian Bureau of Statistics, Labour Force, August, 1972, 1974, 1976, 1978.

It is clear from these figures that an individual's sex alters employment chances and that females are more disadvantaged than men. If women have other social characteristics which disadvantage them they are in an even more unequal position in the workforce. For example, using the November 1978, figures of the ABS, the unemployment rate of young females is much greater than that of young males - 17.6%, compared with 14.6% - and the unemployment

rate of migrant females is much greater than that of migrant males - 8.1%, compared with 5.1%.<sup>8</sup>

As with any other social characteristic which causes unemployment, sex plays an important part in the composition of the hidden unemployed group. It is quite likely that many more married women would enter the workforce if they believed that work was available.

#### Place of Residence

If the unemployment rates are analysed in terms of geographical regions, it is found that greater concentrations of unemployment occur in non-metropolitan areas, particularly amongst women, and that unemployment varies in the different states of Australia.

In November 1978, the unemployment rate in the capital cities of Australia was 5.7% (for women 6.4%) and in other areas was 6.0% (for women 8.3%).<sup>9</sup>

One indication of the differences in unemployment rates in the different States of Australia is the relationship between the numbers of unemployed persons in the urban and rural areas of each state to the number of unfilled vacancies in each area.

TABLE 6: RATIO OF UNEMPLOYED PERSONS TO UNFILLED VACANCIES BY REGION\*

December 1978	NSW	VIC	SA	QLD	TAS	WA	NT	AUST
Metro-politan	14:1	23:1	45:1	41:1	18:1	61:1	-	23:1
Non-metro-politan	32:1	25:1	25:1	47:1	22:1	24:1	-	30:1
Total	19:1	23:1	38:1	44:1	20:1	43:1	14:1	25:1

\* Figures based on Monthly Review of the Employment Situation, Department of Employment and Youth Affairs, December, 1978.

The above table indicates that labour markets in rural areas are more depressed in all states except South Australia and Western Australia, and that Queensland, Western Australia and South Australia all have higher ratios of unemployed persons to unfilled vacancies than the national average.

These figures show that the place in which a person lives can seriously affect his employment chances and consequently disadvantage him. If he also happens to be young, he is further disadvantaged as the following figures show.

TABLE 7:                    RATIO OF UNEMPLOYED PERSONS  
TO UNFILLED VACANCIES (VICTORIA) \*

Category	Metropolitan	Country	Total
Adult Male	18:1	16:1	18:1
Adult Female	21:1	20:1	21:1
Junior Male	28:1	35:1	30:1
Junior Female	46:1	62:1	51:1
Total	23:1	25:1	23:1

\* Figures based on Commonwealth Employment Service Statistics, Victoria, unpublished, December, 1978.

### Marketable Skills

The trends in employment by industry in Australia show that the proportion of people working in primary and secondary industries has declined and that there has been an increase in the proportion of people working in the tertiary sector. The following figures indicate this trend.

TABLE 8: PROPORTION OF EMPLOYMENT  
IN EACH SECTOR\*

Year	Rural	Mining	Manufacturing	Services
1950-51	14	2	29	55
1962-63	10	1	24	64
1972-73	7	1	22	70
1974-75	7	1	23	69

\* Structural Change in Australia, Industries Assistance Commission, A.G.P.S., Canberra, 1977, p. 4.

Unfortunately, many of the people employed in construction and manufacturing work either have no skills at all or have skills which are very specific to their particular jobs. This means that they do not have the skills to move into the only expanding sector in industry and are consequently unemployed. For example, in November 1978, unemployed persons in the construction industry made up 10.1% of the total number of unemployed and the unemployment rate in this industry was 7.1%, compared with the overall unemployment rate of 5.8%.<sup>10</sup>

Thus, lack of marketable skills or skills which are currently in demand disadvantage many unemployed people. This mismatch between workers and unfilled jobs is quite clear in the table below which, incidentally, shows that women are more disadvantaged in certain industries.

TABLE 9: RATIO OF UNEMPLOYED PERSONS  
TO UNFILLED VACANCIES  
BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUP (AUSTRALIA)\*

Occupational Group	Male	Female	Total
Rural	13:1	15:1	13:1
Professional and Semi-professional	6:1	14:1	8:1
Clerical and Administrative	12:1	29:1	21:1
Skilled Building and Construction	18:1	9:0	18:1
Skilled Metal and Electrical	6:1	8:1	6:1
Other Skilled not included elsewhere	9:1	21:1	10:1
Semi-skilled	31:1	24:1	29:1
Unskilled Manual	64:1	9:1	60:1
Service occupation	28:1	19:1	22:1
Total	19:1	24:1	21:1

\* Figures based on Monthly Review of the Employment Situation, Department of Employment and Youth Affairs, November, 1978.

It is extremely difficult to collect and collate evidence about the social characteristics of members of the workforce and almost impossible to arrive at a conclusion about the numbers of disadvantaged workers and the degree of their disadvantage at any particular time.

Lack of available data has already been mentioned as one of the constraints of this study and it was in this area that the constraint was most binding. For instance, there are no official statistics about the educational characteristics of unemployed people, for example, the literacy rate. The few indicators of educational level which are available, for example, the statistics concerning 'age at leaving school', are several years old (May 1976).

Another difficulty concerning the availability of data is that it is often collected at different times, making comparisons and additions a 'statistical juggling act'. Thus, the November 1978, ABS figures are informative about the age, sex and marital status of the unemployed, but the last figure about the family status of the unemployed was published in July 1978, whilst the figure about the birthplace of the unemployed was published in October 1978.

The best that can be said about the lack of consistency in the times of data collection is that it reinforces the idea that workforce statistics present a dynamic and changing picture.

This section of the report has attempted to use available data to show that certain social characteristics possessed by some groups in the community serve to disadvantage them in the employment market, and lessen their opportunities to obtain employment. It has been shown that young people, Aborigines, migrants, women, the unskilled and people who do not live in cities are all unemployed in disproportionate numbers relative to their respective workforce membership.



In social planning, a scarcity of accurate and comprehensive data is often used as an excuse for no programs, or inadequate programs. However, Australian history shows that it is possible to produce manpower programs for disadvantaged workers even when data is incomplete. For example, the training scheme for women 'restricted from employment by domestic responsibilities' introduced in September 1970, or more recent programs for Aborigines.

The conclusion of this section of the report is that the data, on which manpower programs are based, is far from adequate. Although many more national resources should be invested in data collection, it is still possible to produce thoughtful and imaginative programs on the basis of the data now available.

Squeezing Out the Disadvantaged Worker

The Department of Employment and Youth Affairs (DEYA) does not have a consistent policy for the provision of manpower programs for disadvantaged workers. Indeed, it is apparent that two completely contradictory attitudes towards disadvantaged workers exist within the Department. The result of these conflicting attitudes is that while considerable energy is being devoted to the development of a philosophy for future service provision for disadvantaged workers, increasing numbers of them are being deliberately squeezed out of existing programs.

These conflicting attitudes appear to be the outcome of the dissimilar objectives of different sections of the Department. The policy development section of the Department takes the view that the Department is both legally and philosophically bound to meet the needs of all disadvantaged workers, and is attempting to define a role for the Department which will allow for the development of a wider range of programs in this area. However, the service delivery sections believe that the development of special programs for disadvantaged workers is a welfare/educational function, rather than a manpower planning function and is more properly the role of other Government departments.

It appears that the attitude adopted by the service delivery sections of DEYA is based on the belief that the unemployed can be divided into two discrete groups; the 'employable' and the 'unemployable', and the latter are the responsibility of other Government departments, such as Education or Social Security.<sup>11</sup> The service delivery sections appear to have decided to put into effect a process of unilateral role definition: that is they are deliberately excluding from their programs those groups

for whom they do not believe they should be responsible, without making any attempt to transfer formally the responsibility to other authorities or Government departments.

To understand fully the consequences of this policy it is necessary to consider the development of DEYA's services for the disadvantaged worker.

Traditionally, DEYA has been involved in the provision of special services for certain well-defined categories of disadvantaged workers. These groups include the mentally and physically 'handicapped' and Aborigines, as well as several easily identified 'socially handicapped' groups, such as ex-prisoners, the long-term unemployed, alcoholics and drug addicts. The usual assistance to these groups is confined to specialist counselling and placement services, and the servicing of hospital and other institutions. However, special training provisions are available for certain disadvantaged groups through DEYA and other Federal Government departments, and when the NEAT scheme was established it became possible for the DEYA to broaden the scope of its services to disadvantaged workers. In addition the Cochrane Report, published in 1974, clearly envisaged the DEYA making greater use of NEAT in the future to develop the provision of services for the disadvantaged.

There is a need to assist other economically disadvantaged groups who can be helped by training to find better employment and so overcome poverty.<sup>12</sup>

To the extent that some of these groups have hitherto been regarded as unemployable, there are substantial benefits, both social and economic, to be derived from labour market training provided it is sufficiently comprehensive and flexible.<sup>13</sup>

Norgard, in his 1978 review of the CES, adopted the same attitude.

... when dealing with special client groups a broader strategy than just providing placement and counselling services (is) required.<sup>14</sup>

He concluded that:

... increased pressure on the CES had resulted in the CES tending to pay only lip service to the problems of special groups. Generally speaking, there is a lack of trained officers to handle disadvantaged clients, a lack of continuity of contact with specific clients, a lack of research undertaken in the area of special groups and a lack of promotional and other publicity material.<sup>15</sup>

The current high levels of unemployment have exacerbated the problems of the disadvantaged. Furthermore, the structural nature of much unemployment has led to the emergence of new categories of persons who face the prospect of long-term unemployment. In response to this situation, and perhaps to some of the criticisms of departmental activities in the field, DEYA has developed a number of programs. The best known are the Education Program for Unemployed Youth (EPUY), the Community Youth Support Scheme (CYSS) and the Special Youth Employment Training Program (SYETP). Within the National Employment and Training system (NEAT), programs have also emerged which recognise the special needs of disadvantaged persons, for example, the funding of special courses for the disadvantaged, and the development of programs for handicapped youth.

These developments have been complemented by public acknowledgement of the special needs of disadvantaged persons and by the explicit recognition of the severe social effects of long-term unemployment. For instance, it is clearly stated in the CYSS program guidelines that when a program attracts more participants than can be handled, the longer term unemployed are to be given

preference. It has been publicly acknowledged that SYETP is designed to meet the needs of young people for whom the CES has found it particularly difficult to find employment. When the NEAT Handicapped Youth Program (NHYP) was introduced it had a higher subsidy and a longer subsidy period than the standard NEAT scheme, thus recognising that certain groups need specific measures of assistance clearly differentiated from those offered to other groups. Similarly, the funding on a pilot basis of special courses for disadvantaged groups under NEAT recognises that a diversity of approaches can, and should be taken with disadvantaged groups.

The Norgard Report resulted in the introduction of a new CES Act. On introducing the Act, the Minister recognised the need for the CES to provide special services to particular disadvantaged groups in the community, and commented:

The CES has now the added responsibility of providing specialised advice and assistance to the particular groups in the labour market such as Aborigines, handicapped persons, migrants, etc. 16

Within this context of increasing recognition of the needs of the disadvantaged, DEYA has passed through a period of general internal re-organisation in an attempt to carry out more effectively its manpower policy responsibilities in this (and other) areas. In particular the policy development sections have been reorganised and are formulating new policies for the handicapped/disadvantaged, for example, the development of a three-tier service structure in the CES. Under this structure, each tier is distinguished by increasing levels of staff involvement with CES applicants. This involvement ranges from minimum contact with applicants through a self service operation at the first tier, to intensive assistance, counselling, specialist placement and information at higher levels.

However, despite the introduction of these new measures of assistance, and the recent emphasis on service provision for the disadvantaged, there is a countervailing movement from within DEYA to exclude disadvantaged clients from programs.

Moreover, this movement has not been accompanied by any attempt to develop new programs to meet the needs of those who are being increasingly excluded from existing programs. Rather, there are indications that the DEYA is withdrawing its services to certain categories of disadvantaged workers and that this action is based on the dubious assumption that other authorities will be forced to step in and take over responsibility for these groups.

Developments in the following programs illustrate this trend.

1. NEAT Special Groups

In 1976, DEYA decided to fund, under NEAT, a number of 'special programs'. These were individual pilot programs designed to assist 'young persons with a physical' or mental handicap or who are socially disadvantaged'. DEYA has recently advised organisations involved in special programs for the 'socially disadvantaged' that further funding under NEAT will not be available, and that no new programs will be funded. The DEYA had made it clear that it now regards the provision of funding for such programs as the responsibility of State Governments and other community organisations.

2. Assistance to Migrants under NEAT Special Groups

Although DEYA has never developed special manpower programs for migrants, it has been funding, through NEAT, courses for migrant women which combine basic English with training in specific work skills. These courses are no longer to be funded through NEAT, on the grounds

that the Galbally Report has recommended that all migrant English programs be handled by the Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs. The fact that the existing programs have a significant and complementary work-skill component as well as a language teaching function appears to have been ignored.

### 3. NEAT Handicapped Youth Program

This program was originally designed to assist a broad range of disadvantaged CES clientele. The Department has now decided to exclude the 'socially disadvantaged' from participation. No reason has been given for this action. At the same time, the amount of assistance available has also been reduced. The subsidy period under the scheme is now to be standardised with that available to clients under the normal NEAT on-job training scheme. The provision of subsidised work experience assistance to students at Special Schools has been curtailed. The apparent reason for these changes is that it is no longer seen as appropriate for NEAT to be involved in educational areas.

In addition to these blatant moves to exclude disadvantaged people from programs, action has also been taken to dilute the effectiveness of SYETP and CYSS programs for the disadvantaged worker.

### 4. Community Youth Support Scheme

In July 1978, the Department introduced new guidelines for the scheme. These guidelines specifically excluded counselling activities, and severely limited the provision of services of a social or general welfare nature. Such functions were seen as the role of other agencies.

If implementable, these prohibitions would make the task of CYSS project officers who are working with disadvantaged people even more difficult than it has

been up to date, and the result could well be that disadvantaged workers would no longer be able to participate meaningfully in CYSS projects.

5. Special Youth Employment Training Program

SYETP was originally introduced to assist long-term, unemployed school leavers. However, the criteria for eligibility have been broadened so significantly that the scheme no longer operates in the interests of disadvantaged workers. There are indications that SYETP is to be redirected towards those most in need of assistance. It is not clear whether this action has been prompted by a concern for the disadvantaged worker, or whether it is merely an attempt to stop employers obtaining subsidies for hiring people they would have employed regardless of the existence of SYETP. In either case, the redirecting of SYETP will take place against the background of a significant reduction in both the amount and duration of the subsidy.

These moves reveal the contradiction between theory and practice which exists in DEYA - positive rhetoric at one level is followed by restrictive moves at another - gains in some areas are negated by cut-backs and exclusions in others.

Given the lack of an overall departmental policy towards the disadvantaged worker, programs and policies are developed on an ad hoc, reactive basis, and not out of any determination to provide a coherent response to the needs of the disadvantaged worker.

The recent large scale introduction of self service facilities in the CES exemplified the lack of planning and co-ordination in DEYA services for disadvantaged



clientele. 'Self service' was introduced in response to Norgard's recommendations for a three-tier client service. Self service was an option for those clients who could avail themselves of CES service with minimum assistance. Theoretically this would leave CES staff free to concentrate on providing an in-depth service to disadvantaged clients.

Information available to the Brotherhood suggests that the introduction of self service at CES offices has resulted in usage by greater numbers than envisaged. Thus, this new service, has not freed staff for work with disadvantaged clients but has concentrated the efforts of CES offices on self service applicants. It is reported that in many offices assistance to disadvantaged persons ceases after their initial registration. Such is the result of introducing a total concept in a piecemeal fashion. While teething problems are always expected it is particularly hard to excuse such an obvious lack of planning at a time when the disadvantaged unemployed are so much at risk.

The inconsistent nature of the attitudes of DEYA towards the disadvantaged worker can be traced back to two factors - attempts to limit expenditure, and the Department's failure to arrive at an adequate functional definition of the disadvantaged worker.

One of the stated reasons for discontinuing the funding of NEAT Special Groups for the socially disadvantaged is that they are not cost-effective by comparison with standard programs.<sup>17</sup> It is recognised that, given limited resources there are arguments for concentrating on those who can be helped quickly and economically, and for spreading available resources over the maximum number of unemployed. The special programs are costly: nevertheless, the question of whether the existing programs can effectively meet the needs of all disadvantaged workers must still be answered.

In this report it has been argued that existing programs such as CYSS, SYETP and EPUY do not offer adequate coverage for disadvantaged workers. For example, CYSS appears to have narrowed significantly its client group by its ban on activities of a general welfare nature. SYETP has widened its target group to the extent that it is doubtful that the disadvantaged are being assisted because employers are creaming off the best available applicants. NEAT makes little provision for pre-training, which is often a necessary preliminary stage to any training program for the disadvantaged. EPUY, while more relevant to the needs of the disadvantaged, suffers because of the absence of a training allowance, short duration of courses and its restriction to youth.

The exclusion of disadvantaged workers from those programs which were originally designed to meet their specific needs means that they are in fact being completely excluded from participation in manpower programs per se. Such a policy ensures that the disadvantaged validate their 'unemployable' label which in turn validates DEYA's perception of them. The spreading of resources with its consequent emphasis on the numbers assisted, rather than on the quality of the assistance, is a well recognised feature of Government manpower policy. An extract from a speech by the Minister for Employment and Youth Affairs on 14 September, 1978, illustrates this point:

The number of trainees under NEAT (including SYETP) has increased dramatically since we came to Government in 1975, and indeed has outstripped our expectation ... With little more than doubling of expenditure, numbers in training at the end of June 1978 were more than six times the level of December 1975. 18

The Government has consistently failed to recognise the fact that if the existing programs are not relevant to the needs of participants, the question of cost-benefit or cost-effectiveness is meaningless. The need

to take into account the non-economic costs and benefits of manpower programs has been emphasised in a publication of the United Kingdom Department of Employment and Productivity:

It is important to stress that the benefit-cost calculations reported here measure benefits, insofar as it is possible to quantify these, in terms of efficiency objectives of manpower retraining. There are other economic, social, psychological and political benefits - and perhaps costs, too - that cannot be quantified. If they could be quantified, then the favourable results (of training programs) already reported would probably be even more favourable.<sup>19</sup>

The second factor, that of the lack of an adequate definition of the disadvantaged worker, reflects the Department's traditional 'categorisation' approach to service delivery. This approach can be seen in its most extreme and dangerous form, in the clear and essentially arbitrary distinction now being made between 'employable' and 'unemployable' people, and the consequent reshaping and redirection of each manpower program so that it serves the 'employable' rather than the 'unemployable'. The Department thus becomes involved in a continuing cycle of self-validation by ensuring that those people who are placed in the 'unemployable' category remain unemployed.

Norgard's recommendations for the restructuring of the CES were a recognition that any categorical approach to service provision was inadequate. Implicit in this report was the view that attention must be drawn to the cause rather than the effects of unemployment, and that individual clients needs could not be met by a system oriented to diagnosis and provision of assistance based on an individual's membership of a particular category.

Until DEYA is able to move away from the labelling approach and is able systematically to determine what the needs of the disadvantaged are, there will continue to be discrepancies between its rhetoric and its action.

There can be little doubt that the disadvantaged are being squeezed out of existing manpower programs, and that certain sections of DEYA are engaged in a unilateral exercise of delineation of responsibility - of distinguishing between people for whom they feel an employment responsibility and those for whom they do not. Little communication appears to be taking place within the Department, or between the Department and other relevant agencies.

The Brotherhood believes that employment training, education and welfare must be integrated and that manpower programming which attempts to segregate these functions will lead to fragmentation, confusion and dissipation of effort.

It is interesting to note the attitude of the US Department of Labour to training of the disadvantaged:

Training the disadvantaged often required basic education before they could understand simple work instructions, job related education so that they could understand the task, special counselling to ameliorate personal problems, travel assistance and child care, medical and dental care, and a smattering of other supportive services before any of their work potential could be realised. 20

It is worth noting that the original NEAT scheme replaced a series of fourteen training programs conducted by four Federal Departments. Action which once again splits responsibilities for client groups between Commonwealth authorities is anachronistic. If DEYA believes that it cannot, or should not, support programs for the disadvantaged, alternative strategies should be developed for these groups. Otherwise the departmental 'too hard' basket will once again continue to expand at the expense of the most vulnerable and powerless of its client groups. As the enquiry into the CES remarked, in discussing the problems of the disadvantaged worker:

If the national employment service withdrew its help then it is likely that no other employment organisation would be available to help.<sup>21</sup>

### Manpower Programs for Disadvantaged Workers

There are two different approaches to the provision of manpower programs for disadvantaged workers. They can either be provided within existing programs or through new programs specifically created for the disadvantaged worker. The former approach is favoured in this report

The planning principles for manpower programs, previously outlined, are applicable equally to programs for the unemployed generally as they are to programs for the unemployed who are disadvantaged. It is fallacious to assume that different principles should apply to programs which include the disadvantaged unemployed worker. If, however, the same programs are provided for all the unemployed, certain safeguards must be included in them to ensure the access of disadvantaged workers.

Quite often disadvantaged workers have special requirements, requirements which are unnecessary for other unemployed people but which must be provided within programs if the disadvantaged are to have access to them. For example, some disadvantaged workers will require English language training, some (often the handicapped) special equipment and facilities, and some will need pre-training in the form of basic literacy and numeracy skills. This report suggests that such requirements can be met within new manpower programs so that disadvantaged workers do have access to them.

There must also be some form of guaranteed access to programs for disadvantaged workers. This guarantee could be provided in various ways, for example, every program could allocate a proportion of places to workers who would otherwise be excluded, or would receive low preference. It is, however, recognized that this

identification of the disadvantaged worker may lead to stigmatisation.

Linked to access is the need for an adequate income to enable disadvantaged workers to take advantage of 'reserved' places in manpower programs. It is suggested that members of the workforce who have been unemployed for six months, or longer, should be provided with a guaranteed income set at the level of the poverty line.

The advantage of a guaranteed income for the long-term unemployed worker is that it allows choices about the future and provides a material base and the necessary security to make choices carefully. The assumptions are that the needs of individuals are more important than the needs of organizations and that it is particularly punitive to maintain people below the poverty line (the unemployment benefit) for prolonged periods.

There are two major objections to a guaranteed income for long-term unemployed people. The first is that it encourages dependency, undermines the work ethic, and encourages laziness. This argument assumes, however, that there are, and will be, enough jobs for all who wish to work. There seems little point in worrying about the work ethic if there is no work to be ethical about. Furthermore, it assumes that the long-term unemployed are not influenced by cultural expectations and requirements, where working, and wanting to work, are seen to be normal and desirable.

The second objection to a guaranteed income concerns the cost of such a measure. It is, of course, much more expensive to provide a guaranteed income for all long-term unemployed people, than for some of the long-term unemployed, particularly in view of the disparate payments currently made - a standardised guaranteed income means dramatic increases in some existing payment arrangements. The question of cost, however, is relative. There is, for instance, the social, political and economic cost of not providing a guaran-

anteed income to long-term unemployed people. A guaranteed income facilitates return to the workforce and the ability to contribute towards productivity and economic growth.

In the end, it is a question of priorities. A community can provide a guaranteed income for all long-term unemployed people provided it accepts this decision and is willing to make the economic and political arrangements that are necessary for such payments to be made. This means that existing public expenditure allocations either have to change, or additional revenue has to be generated.

It has already been noted in Section 5 of this report that a job creation strategy is the best solution to unemployment, and that the identification and development of a job creation strategy takes time. It was suggested that, while a new strategy was being developed, existing programs should be revamped into three categories: work experience, pre-training and vocational training programs. The following discussion concerns ways in which this revamping can be made relevant to unemployed disadvantaged workers.

#### Pre-Training Programs

Many disadvantaged workers do not have qualifications for any type of employment. Such individuals require pre-employment training counselling and supportive services, before they are in a position to benefit from training.

As special emphasis will be necessary on the social and cultural causal factors of disadvantage, pre-training should focus on:



- \* overcoming social, educational and physical barriers, particularly employer and community prejudice about the disadvantaged worker;
- \* assisting workers with long-term absence from the workforce and re-entry problems;
- \* helping workers deal with a shift in occupational skills, etc., required by redundancy in their previous occupational area.

Many disadvantaged workers can benefit from general pre-training schemes, because they are basically designed to overcome social or educational barriers to further training and employment. As such, they have particular relevance to some disadvantaged workers – but not all, because many disadvantaged workers do not experience social or educational barriers to work. Some skilled workers, for instance, are disadvantaged not because they lack skills but because their skills are not in demand.

#### Work Experience Programs

Work experience programs for disadvantaged workers require careful and realistic planning. For example, it is important that work experience is related to future employment opportunities.

As with pre-training programs, support systems are also necessary during work experience programs. Other elements of a work experience program for disadvantaged workers are: interchange between work experience, pre-training and training components; flexible work experience arrangements.

The primary objectives of the work experience program for disadvantaged workers should be the same as for other workers and are:

- \* to test occupational choice/area;
- \* to experience the routines and obligations of being a worker;
- \* to acquire skills;
- \* to provide graduated shifts in terms of work responsibility.

#### Vocational Training Program

Within vocational training programs, special consideration is required for the following types of disadvantaged worker:

- \* Workers who are ineligible for the occupation because of technological change and who are facing retraining in a new field.
- \* Workers who face particular social and cultural barriers to employment; vocational training should be geared to overcome these handicaps.

It is also necessary that there is a close inter-relationship between the vocational training program, the pre-training program and job placement.

### Job Creation

Whilst the revamping of existing labour efficiency programs will help the disadvantaged worker the argument of this report is that the only effective employment strategy is the creation of long-term job opportunities for the unemployed. If job creation opportunities are to be limited, it is recommended that the disadvantaged unemployed should be given priority access to these programs. When considering the specific situation of the disadvantaged worker within such a strategy, particular programs need to be considered.

For the disadvantaged worker small, community-based job creation programs are preferable because they enable the provision of 'support' opportunities for the worker.

For example, in the U.S.A., the Supported Work Program is a transitional work experience program directed at ex-prisoners, ex-drug addicts under treatment, young school dropouts and long-term recipients of welfare programs.<sup>21</sup>

The program was established on a national level in March, 1975, and by June, 1977, over 5,400 people had enrolled. There are 15 projects under the program, which are usually run by non-profit corporations. Participants are recruited into ordinary jobs, but these jobs are distinguished from ordinary jobs by a structured, supportive environment, provided in the following ways:

- \* Peer support: disadvantaged workers are recruited in crews of four to seven.

- \* Graduated stress: a sliding scale of performance and production is devised at the workplace.
- \* Close supervision: work is supervised by a skilled person schooled in the supported work concept.
- \* Long term or flexible time limits on placement of the workers.

A participant can stay in a program for up to 18 months, but the average length of participation in a project is 7 to 9 months. Most of the work undertaken is either general services or construction work for public agencies or private, non-profit institutions. Revenue-generating work is permitted.

Following an examination of job creation programs throughout the Western world, it is believed that job creation programs for the disadvantaged should be based on this Supported Work Program.

It has been argued that a great deal more could be done to help the disadvantaged unemployed worker. Initially, it is proposed that the disadvantaged unemployed should be given preferential access to revamped programs, and that priority should be given to them when job creation programs are established.

Such measures require the identification of the disadvantaged unemployed worker and this identification involves hard and, for many, unpopular and unpalatable choices. Nonetheless, the choices need to be made if the situation of those who are most seriously economically disadvantaged is to be alleviated.

It is accurate to argue that all the unemployed are disadvantaged, but this assertion is impractical and even mischievous. It encourages acceptance of the belief that nothing effective can be done to help all of the unemployed and, therefore, it is difficult to help only some of the unemployed. One view which is held by many people, and appears to transcend political boundaries, is that the disadvantaged unemployed worker should not, therefore, be helped at all. This study has found that some workers are more disadvantaged than others and it is believed that the most disadvantaged should be helped first and have greater access to the manpower resources available in the community.

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## 7. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the two decades between 1950 and 1970, considered a time of full employment, the disadvantaged worker experienced extreme difficulty in entering and remaining in the workforce.

Throughout this period manpower programs were small scale and low key. There was little pressure on the Government from interested groups in the community to improve program delivery to disadvantaged people. In the early seventies a series of Government reports began to recognise the right of the disadvantaged worker to have access to appropriate manpower programs. However, high and increasing unemployment rates in the workforce overtook equity policies and alongside these reports there was a rapid succession of manpower programs for all the unemployed.

In these programs a fundamental conflict has emerged between those who advocate helping the disadvantaged unemployed worker and those who advocate helping the most employable unemployed worker. Manpower programs have either replicated this policy conflict or opted for one or the other. The conflict has been exacerbated by apparent political consensus and significant community acceptance of the need to reduce and rationalise public expenditure. Manpower resources are scarce and it is not surprising that there is a belief that the effectiveness of these resources will be maximised by assisting the most employable rather than the most needy.

Overriding this conflict to help the most employable rather than the most needy, is the tendency of employers to become part of a natural selection process and to 'cream-off' the most experienced and qualified workers amongst the unemployed. In effect, at times of high



unemployment, employers raise their recruitment and selection standards. It is to be expected that employers will choose employees who maximise productivity and who require little training and/or on-the-job support. After all, employers' preferences are dictated by competitive economic conditions which make productivity most important. Even if manpower programs theoretically give priority to the disadvantaged unemployed, the expectations and requirements of employers determine the effectiveness of these programs.

While it is recognised that all of the unemployed are disadvantaged, this broad statement hides the complexity and reality of the labour market. While there is a shortage of jobs, there are some jobs, but the opportunities for taking up these jobs differ amongst the unemployed. If an unemployed person is not 'productive' enough that person will not be hired - by the private or public sector. Although the difference in productivity can be marginal, employers will act consistently with their productivity and profitability needs by employing the 'best' unemployed.

The dramatic increase in the unemployment rate imposes the need to re-examine the definition of a disadvantaged worker and the manpower programs which are designed to assist him. In times of 'full' employment the disadvantaged worker group was composed largely of itinerant single people, unskilled and semi-skilled workers with large families and the chronically unemployed. Since the 1960s, not only the number of unemployed persons but the criteria of disadvantage has changed. Three examples are: the young unemployed person is disadvantaged due to his lack of experience; the average duration of unemployment now exceeds that period of unemployment previously regarded as defining chronic unemployment; older workers are being squeezed out of the workforce in favour of younger workers.

In today's fluid and dynamic situation it is not possible simply to assert that the same groups who were disadvantaged in the 1950s and 1960s remain disadvantaged in the 1970s. If the community accommodates to a long-term, high unemployment rate, then the number of disadvantaged workers must increase and the distinction between disadvantaged and 'advantaged' unemployed workers becomes less real and meaningful.

Irrespective of their previous status, in time, unemployment equalises the situation of the unemployed, so that it must be eventually accepted by those concerned that most, if not all, of the unemployed are disadvantaged. The definition and determination of disadvantaged is, of course, a complex process of objective development and subjective perception.

The majority of the unemployed and, in particular, the disadvantaged unemployed, lack access to information about existing manpower programs and, indeed, access to the programs themselves. It is not surprising that the findings of this report are that the most disadvantaged workers are the least competitive in the labour market, and that they are being progressively squeezed out of existing manpower programs. Those disadvantaged workers who do obtain a scarce place in a manpower program frequently find that the programs do not lead to permanent employment and, as a consequence, are further demoralised.

In the analysis of existing manpower programs which is contained in this report, and its relevance to the disadvantaged worker, it is not suggested that the inadequacies uncovered reflect lack of understanding or perception on the part of administrators or program designers. Rather, it is suggested that the inadequacies are a function of a manpower policy which is poorly articulated and planned, and which is constrained by a political ideology which emphasises minimum government intervention. Most significantly, the problem is one of cost; manpower programs have been, for too many years,

restricted by inadequate finance. It cannot be too highly stressed that effective manpower programs are high cost items, and that ultimately no amount of public spiritedness, innovation, redirection, or positive targeting, can effectively compensate for lack of public expenditure. Recognition of this basic assertion leads to an understanding of the difficulties faced by the Brotherhood in meeting the specific contract of the Social Welfare Department to design new manpower program packages for disadvantaged workers within existing funding.

The main finding of this report is that a manpower policy which does not include large-scale (and expensive) job creation programs helps few of the unemployed and, in particular, ignores the disadvantaged unemployed worker whose position is rapidly deteriorating. The evidence presented in this report clarifies this deterioration and suggests immediate action to prevent its escalation. This report presents the Social Welfare Department with the initiative for such action. The Department is one of several which have a close relationship with the Victorian Employment Committee and is in the position to request the State Government, through that Committee, to analyse carefully the conclusions of this report.

If the proposed community consultation which was previously suggested by the Brotherhood does take place, then other groups in the community may also have the opportunity to examine the recommendation. There is a need for all relevant groups in the community to mount a visible and consistent campaign for action to resolve the unemployment problem and, perhaps, this report could become a tool of that campaign.

The following is a list of recommendations which arise out of this study. While there may be disagreement about the specifics of the recommendations, their essential thrust is that the remedial policies and programs being

pursued by this Government need to be abandoned and replaced by more systematic and integrated policies and programs, the details of which may well change in the course of debate and time. Only the major recommendations have been canvassed because they are substantial and significant. Less important changes which amount to administrative and procedural tinkering are discussed within the report.

In summary, then, the major recommendations are that:

1. National economic policy should be altered so that a first priority is the creation of employment, rather than the reduction of inflation.
2. The Government should accept the need for manpower planning and recognise that an essential preliminary to planning is the establishment and development of appropriate and interdependent values, assumptions, strategies and planning principles.
3. The delivery of manpower programs should be decentralized through the establishment of National, State, Regional and Local Manpower Boards which have real decision-making power, and which are composed of representatives from all sectors of the community.
4. The Government should create a large-scale job creation program within which the disadvantaged unemployed worker should have priority access.

5. If a job creation program is accepted, in the interim, DEYA should reshape, redesign and reorganize NEAT, NEAT Special Groups, SYETP, EPUY, CYSS and NHYP into four new programs: a work experience program, a job subsidy program, a training program, and a local initiatives job creation program.
6. In both a new program and a revamped program, there is a need for flexibility in the length of projects and the duration of participants' involvement. Long-term funding of at least two to three years should be introduced to enable the proper planning and fulfilment of programs.
7. Whilst the economic situation prevents people from working, the Government should introduce a guaranteed income, at least equivalent to the poverty line, for every person who has been unemployed for six months or longer and who is not employed for at least one month during this time.
8. An independent research and development organization should be established to monitor and evaluate employment and unemployment policies, programs and projects. This organisation should also be responsible for the active collection and dissemination of information about employment and manpower programs.

Generally, these recommendations fall within the ambit of the Commonwealth Government, but are also important to the State Government. It is the State Government which, by its local nature, bears the brunt of the social costs and consequences of unemployment. Consequently, the State Government is in a prime position to urge the Commonwealth Government, on behalf of the Victorian people, both employed and unemployed, to effect the necessary changes to Australian manpower policy. Also, the State Government has already entered the manpower arena by announcing its own manpower initiatives independent of the Commonwealth Government's initiatives. The planning principles proposed in this report could and should apply to the State initiatives and, as the State Government already participates in Commonwealth programs, it can urge the appropriate authorities to apply the principles to national programs.

From the point of view of the mandate for this study, the ultimate question is: Do the disadvantaged unemployed have a right to work? Until this question is answered in the affirmative the reality of social Darwinism will persist and only the fittest will survive by getting and retaining jobs. The consequences of this struggle for both the unemployed and the employed are regrettably divisive. The popular view that unemployment is solely the consequence of technological imperatives and immutable economic progress is a myth. Unemployment is also an ethical and political choice. Ultimately, unemployment exists because the majority of people choose to tolerate unemployment - when the majority of people become involved in its resolution, this serious social problem will be overcome.

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APPENDIX ARelevant Brotherhood of St Laurence Publications

1961	On Benefit	Brotherhood of St Laurence. A study of Unemployment and Unemployment Benefits in Australia.
1972	Unemployment: The Facts and Effects	David Griffiths. Brotherhood of St Laurence.
1974	Why so Harsh on the Unemployed? A Second Discussion Paper.	Brotherhood of St Laurence.
1974	The Luck of the Game.	Margaret Tinney, Concetta Benn and Judith O'Neill. Brotherhood of St Laurence. A study of school leavers in a Melbourne inner suburban school.
1975	Youth Alternative Employment.	Brotherhood of St Laurence. A proposal for a job creation and community service program.
1975	Workers Without Jobs.	Graeme Brewer. Brotherhood of St Laurence. A study of a group of unemployed people.
1975	The No-Collar Workers.	Jan Salmon. A study of the work patterns of members of the Family Centre.
1976	The Job Centre	Brotherhood of St Laurence. A proposal for helping the unemployed.
1976	Submission to the Review of the Commonwealth Em- ployment Service.	Brotherhood of St Laurence.
1977	Short Term Inquiry: Long Term Issue.	Brotherhood of St Laurence. Submission to the Inquiry into Unemployment Benefit Policy and Administration.

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| 1977 | Jobs Without Workers.                                   | David Griffiths. Brotherhood of St Laurence. A paradox of unskilled vacancies and unemployed people.   |
| 1977 | Whither Work.   | David Griffiths. Preston Institute of Technology Press. What is work and its future?   |
| 1978 | Rough Justice.  | Graeme Brewer. Brotherhood of St Laurence. A study of the causes and effects of the termination of unemployment benefits.                              |
| 1978 | Guidebook for the Unemployed.                           | King Street Job Centre. Brotherhood of St Laurence. Claiming and receiving unemployment benefits.  |
| 1978 | Against the Odds.                                       | Graeme Brewer. Brotherhood of St Laurence. The King Street Job Centre: an evaluation.  |
| 1978 | Unemployment - Muddled or Managed?                      | David Griffiths. Brotherhood of St Laurence. Manpower programs and the need for a strategy to end unemployment.  |
| 1978 | Manpower Options for Disadvantaged Workers.             | Brotherhood of St Laurence. An Interim Report to the Victorian Social Welfare Department.  |
| 1979 | Local Employment Program.                               | Brotherhood of St Laurence. A developmental program for the unemployed.  |
| 1979 | Getting a Piece of the Action.                          | Brotherhood of St Laurence. The why, how, where, when and what of programs for the unemployed.   |
| 1979 | A Longitudinal Study. (Working title; to be published.) | Graeme Brewer. Brotherhood of St Laurence. A study of socio-economic changes of a small group of unemployed people over a nine to twelve month period. |

APPENDIX BList of Groups and Organisations ConsultedAustralian Government DepartmentsDepartment of Employment and Youth Affairs  
(Central Office)

Training Operations Branch  
 Community Youth Support Scheme (CYSS) Section  
 Manpower Evaluation and Review Branch  
 Employment Operations Branch  
 Manpower Forecasting Section  
 Manpower and Economic Research Branch  
 Special Services Branch  
 Aboriginal Employment Branch  
 Office of Youth Affairs

Department of Employment and Youth Affairs  
(Victorian Region)

Training Operations Branch  
 CYSS Section  
 Special Services Section  
 Aboriginal Employment Section  
 Youth Employment Section

Department of Social Security  
(South Australian Office)Department of Social Welfare  
(Victoria)Department of Labour and Industry  
(Victoria)Department of Education  
(Victoria)

Career Education Section of Counselling,  
 Guidance and Clinical Services, Special  
 Services Division  
 Technical and Further Education (TAFE)  
 Service Section

Industrial Training Commission  
Skills Development Section

Small Business Development Corporation

Family and Community Services Programme  
Regional Consultative Committees

North-Western Suburbs  
Southern  
Inner Urban  
East Gippsland

Department of Labour and Industry  
(New South Wales)  
Youth Employment Unit

Department of Youth and Community Affairs  
(New South Wales)

Department of Children's Services  
(Queensland)  
Youth Employment Support Scheme

Department of the Premier  
(South Australia)  
Alternative Life Style Committee

Department of Community Welfare  
(South Australia)

Office of Cabinet  
(Tasmania)  
Director of the Office of Cabinet

Department of Community Welfare  
(Tasmania)  
Youth Support Unit

Broadmeadows City Council  
Social Planner

Caulfield City Council  
Social Welfare Department

Sunshine City Council  
Library

Manpower Programs

Community Youth Support Scheme (CYSS) Groups

Alamein CYSS  
Ballarat Schools and Young Men's  
Christian Association  
Bayside Unemployed Self Help, Mordialloc  
Broadmeadows Youth Unemployment  
Resource Centre, Glenroy  
Brunswick Unemployed Group  
Castlemaine Employment Exchange  
Geelong CYSS  
Citizens Radio Emergency Service  
Teams, Caulfield  
City of Berwick, Doveton  
City of Sunshine  
Colac CYSS  
Collingwood Unemployed Group  
Corio CYSS, North Geelong  
Dandenong Resource Co-Operative Limited  
Dandenong Youth Employment Centre,  
Ascot Vale  
Farmhouse, Mitcham  
Kensington CYSS  
Maryborough CYSS  
Northcote Unemployment Resource Group  
Preston Employment Action Group  
Project for Unemployed Self-Help,  
West Heidelberg  
Quest Centre for the Unemployed, Prahran  
Richmond Unemployed Group  
St Albans Unemployed Youth Centre  
School Leavers' Employment Opportunity  
Service, Ringwood  
Self-Help Employment Exchange, Malvern  
Shepparton Job Shop  
Shire of Alexandra CYSS  
Shire of Eltham  
South and Port Melbourne Unemployment  
Group, South Melbourne  
Task Force, Prahran  
Warrnambool Community Unemployed Youth  
Support  
Youth Action, Morwell  
Youth and Others Unemployment Resources  
Centre, Rosanna

Educational Programme for Unemployed Youth  
(EPUY) Groups

Ballarat School of Mines and Industries

Footscray Technical College  
 Garage, Mitcham  
 Geelong Community Adolescent and  
 Family Centre  
 Gordon Technical College, Geelong  
 Skills and Work Experience Education  
 Project for Unemployed Youth, Preston  
 Yarram High School

National Employment and Training (NEAT)  
 System Special Groups

Ashwood Work Preparation Annexe  
 Basic Education Course, Footscray  
 Careers Re-entry Program, Richmond  
 Education and Employment Program,  
 Western Youth Welfare, Ascot Vale  
 Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology  
 Interpreter-Translator Course, Melbourne  
 Support Work Opportunity Programme, Fitzroy  
 Warrnambool Illiterates  
 Work Education for Disadvantaged, Preston  
 Work Skills for Lebanese Women, Abbotsford

Educational Institutions

Rusden State College  
 Counselling Section

Melbourne State College

Caulfield Institute of Technology  
 Department of Management and Secretarial  
 Studies

Preston Technical College  
 Principal  
 Business Studies Department

Huntingdale Technical School

Northcote Technical School  
 Work Experience Program

Upfield High School  
 Pre-employment Program

Elwood High School

Other Victorian Organisations

Action and Resource Centre for Low-Income Families

Australian Frontier

Bootstrap Trading Co-operative Limited, Maryborough

Brunswick Secondary Education Council

Centre for Urban Research and Action

Co-operative Federation of Victoria

Environmentalists for Full Employment

Institute of Applied Economic and Social Research

Municipal Association of Victoria

Trade Union Training Authority

Trades Hall Council

Unemployed Workers' Union

Victorian Chamber of Manufacturers

Service Corps of Retired Executives

Victorian Council of School Organisations

Victorian Council of Social Services

Victorian Employers Federation

Victorian Secondary Teachers' Association

Tertiary Entrance Project

Youth Council of Victoria



National and Interstate Organisations

Australian Council of Social Service

Committee of Community Welfare  
(South Australia)

Local Government Association  
(South Australia)

Port Adelaide Mission  
(South Australia)

Self-Help Project for Unemployed Adults in  
Norwood (South Australia)

Services to Youth Council  
(South Australia)

South Australian Council of Social Service

Unemployed Workers' Union  
(South Australia)

Unemployed Workers' Union  
(Tasmania)

Youth Achievement  
(New South Wales)

Youth Workers Network  
(South Australia)

Overseas Organisations

Bertrand Russell House  
(United Kingdom)

Business and Job Development Corporation  
(United States of America)

Centre for Alternative Industrial and Technology  
Systems, Faculty of Engineering, North-East  
London Polytechnic  
(United Kingdom)

Centre for Community Economic Development  
(United States of America)

Circle, Incorporated and New England Community  
Development Corporation  
(United States of America)

Community Co-operative Centre  
(United States of America)

Community Industry  
(United Kingdom)

Council of Economic Priorities  
(United States of America)

Council on Environmental Quality  
(United States of America)

Department of Labour, Employment Division  
(New Zealand)

Economic Opportunity Commission of Nassau  
County Incorporated  
(United States of America)

Industrial Common Ownership Movement  
(United Kingdom)

Labour Market Board  
(Sweden)

Labour Research Department  
(United Kingdom)

Manpower Services Commission  
(United Kingdom)

Ministry of Recreation and Sport, National  
Youth Council  
(New Zealand)

Movement for New Society Transnational Collective  
(United States of America)

National Commission for Manpower Policy  
(United States of America)

National Congress for Community Economic  
Development  
(United States of America)

Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions,  
Economic Department  
(Norway)

Rank Xerox International Headquarters  
(United Kingdom)

Simple Living Network  
(United States of America)

Society for Co-operative Studies  
(United Kingdom)

Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions  
(Sweden)

Swedish Government Commission on Long-Term  
Employment Policy  
(Sweden)

Swedish Institute for Social Research  
(Sweden)

Trade Union Research Unit  
(United Kingdom)

United Inner City Development Foundation  
(United States of America)

Members of the Brotherhood Team Represented the Agency  
on the Following Committees

State Government Youth Employment Committee

Socio-Cultural Consequences Sub-Committee,  
State Government Youth Employment Committee

Employment Training Sub-Committee, State  
Government Youth Employment Committee

Australian Council of Social Service, Work  
Together Campaign, Steering Committee

Employment Sub-Committee, Youth Council of  
Victoria

Employment Sub-Committee, Victorian Consultative  
Committee on Social Development

Unemployment Task Group, Uniting Church  
(Victoria)

## APPENDIX C

### Some Notes on the Education Background of Manpower Programs

Manpower programs cannot be discussed without a concurrent analysis of the role and activities of the main education authorities, in particular, the Secondary Education system and the Technical and Further Education system. The relationship of these institutions to the manpower authority, the Department of Employment and Youth Affairs (DEYA) is also immensely important.

#### The Secondary Education System

It is difficult to identify the exact roles of the manpower authority and the education system in the provision of basic vocational skills and a meaningful orientation to work.

Transition problems between school and work are not a new phenomenon, but they have been highlighted in recent years by increasing levels of unemployment among youth, particularly school leavers. High levels of unemployment bring to the surface many basic questions of roles and responsibilities.

Employers often complain that schools do not prepare young people adequately for the demands of the work situation. Standards of basic literacy and numeracy, and the lack of vocationally-oriented schooling are particularly questioned. The education system is also blamed for young people's poor standards of presentation

when seeking employment and also for frequent changing of jobs (job turnover). For these reasons employers are often reluctant to employ school leavers and this exacerbates the employment difficulties of young people.

Educators, on the other hand, stress the personal development aspect of education and regard preparation for the work world as a secondary aim of education. They argue, that instead of tailoring the education system to the work world, that the work world should make some adjustment to accommodate the needs of young employees. Consequently, for example, job turnover is sometimes seen as beneficial for young people, as a test of various avenues of employment, rather than as a cost and a nuisance for employers. It is also argued, that employers have varying and inconsistent standards for young people in relation to qualifications for jobs offered, which results in dissatisfaction and demoralisation amongst young people.

A third perspective, however, is that which integrates school and work. Those who claim this perspective state that it is not simply a question of changing one system to suit the other, but that the nature and objectives of each system require fundamental examination, from which can be developed integrated and complementary school and work systems.

One explanation of the difficulties between the school and work systems is that there is not enough communication between employers, students and teachers, and that each has unrealistic attitudes and opinions about the other. This explanation underestimates the fact that the perspectives of the two systems may be substantially and significantly different, being based upon different values and assumptions rather than misunderstandings and misconceptions.

In recent years the education system has accepted some responsibility for improving communication between the systems. There is a growth of school-organised work experience programs, the introduction of careers teachers, and attempts to relate the school syllabus more closely to the external community. In individual schools experimental programs are being conducted. For example, at one school in South Australia a transition class has been established which operates a work experience program plus general employment orientation for early school leavers. It claims to have been successful in placing most students in acceptable employment.

In Victoria the growth of work experience programs, from approximately 12,000 participants in 1976 to 30,000 in 1978, has been notable. The programs derive legislative authority from the Work Experience Act 1974. Under this Act students may be employed in work experience situations for a total of 12 days per term, provided that the period of employment falls within the school year.

Employers must pay students a minimum of \$3 per day if they work more than six hours a day, or 40¢ per hour if less. Workers Compensation or common law claims are met by the State Government. The permission of parents must be obtained for students to take part in work experience programs and students must either be in Form 2 or over 13 years of age. A contract is entered into between the employer, the school principal, the parent and the child.

While it is unrealistic to believe that work experience in itself will meaningfully overcome school/work transition problems, it does provide a practical link between school, the community and employers. The link with employers is most important at a time when they are showing a marked tendency to employ older workers rather than school leavers.

Some schools feel that a work experience program helps employers relate more closely to the education system and makes them more appreciative of the problems and realities of schools. Some schools actively encourage staff work experience by organising observation visits or direct work for a duration of two weeks. A few schools have actively encouraged employers to come to the school, and one school invites employers to take part in 'lessons of the day'.

The need for integration between school work and the community has also been recognised by the introduction of internal sixth form and tertiary entrance certificates in a number of Victorian schools. This innovation represents a gradual trend towards school-based assessment rather than external examination and includes significant work experience components, designed in co-operation with, and taking into account, the needs and wishes of students.

An experimental program proposed by another school attempts to provide a two-year alternative to the HSC. While this proposal has not been accepted its aims are worth quoting. They are:

- \* To establish subjects at the Form 6 level which better cater for the needs, backgrounds and abilities of our students. Assessment is to be progressive and students are to be involved in planning and assessment procedures.
- \* To increase the students' knowledge and experience of work and community organisation and understanding of how they function by:
  - a) introducing a new teaching/learning process within the community and work place. To enable emerging young adults to assume more responsible roles in the community.



b) providing students with more structured and perhaps more favourable entry into the work area of their choice. To monitor and evaluate the value of a structured work experience as an integral part of an educational program.

\* To enable students to enter specific tertiary institutions and courses by developing a mixture of research skills through community - work assignments and formal class work. (Recognition is made here of the fact that many tertiary bodies are placing high value upon work experience before entry, and less on HSC and direct entry.)<sup>1</sup>

These experimental programs are relevant for consideration because they are developed on the premise that school should be relevant to young people and seeks their participation in determining objectives and aims. While they are at present pitched at higher levels the principle may be relevant to schooling at lower levels. The working party on 'Transition from School to Work or Further Study' noted reports that early school leavers often found school irrelevant to their future.<sup>2</sup> This conclusion was supported by a study by the Office of Youth Affairs.<sup>3</sup> The working party noted that while school should not attempt to train students for particular vocations changes to courses could consider the inclusion of more vocationally oriented skills - particularly those related and pertinent to traditional and current sources of employment for the early school leaver.

In attempting to determine appropriate policies and strategies for the employment and training of the disadvantaged workers, the role of TAFE is seen to be most significant. There are many links between it, DEYA and the Industrial Training Commission of Victoria, but the responsibilities of each are not clearly defined.

It is apparent that moves are afoot, mainly through the action of DEYA, to define more closely those responsibilities. There are some indications that the attempt to define roles and responsibilities is taking place through the unilateral divestment of activities by DEYA rather than through constructive communication at any level. The question of the responsibility to provide vocational education and training is highly contentious. It involves a much deeper understanding of the roles of the education and training systems than has been gained through this report. Superficially it appears that DEYA sees the TAFE system and industry having a far greater responsibility than they currently bear, or wish to have. Ultimately the question becomes one of the availability of finance and there seems a danger that matters of principle and policy may be subordinated to the financial capacities of the various institutions involved.

TAFE is one of the four components of post secondary education in Victoria. The others are the Universities, the Victorian Institute of Colleges and the State College of Victoria. TAFE colleges offer a wide variety of courses, including professional, para-professional, apprenticeship and other skilled areas, preparatory courses and adult education. TAFE aims to provide maximum access to educational opportunities.

The general characteristics of TAFE have been described in the following terms:

While limitations will continue to be imposed by the availability of finance, resources and expertise, the Technical Schools Division has accepted the view ... that TAFE should be marked by openness, accessibility and a response to community needs.<sup>4</sup>

TAFE programs are said to be designed in response to the needs of individuals, industry and the community. In addition to courses concentrating on traditional fields of technical education, TAFE colleges, under

the Access Program, provide staff to run courses in response to community needs. Special courses are arranged to assist the unemployed at the request of community and other groups (including DEYA). The Access Program provides not only for the unemployed but for other people who are seeking compensatory education and bridging courses.

TAFE colleges are a vital element in the delivery of courses run by the various vocational training authorities. These courses are:

1. Special vocational courses under the provisions of the NEAT scheme; for instance, courses for Special Groups. Courses are designed and developed in co-operation with local groups and/or the DEYA.
2. EPUY. Courses are designed at local level by community groups and administered through the local TAFE system. In some cases TAFE college premises are used for the conduct of these courses.
3. Apprenticeship. The provision of vocational education for apprentices is one of TAFE's most established roles.
4. Special courses to meet industry needs. TAFE colleges are the vehicle for delivery of special courses identified by the Industrial Training Commission as necessary to overcome skill shortages in industry. TAFE colleges also develop their own courses in response to industry needs, independent of the ITC.
5. Special courses to meet individual needs. Special courses to meet the needs of individuals or groups of individuals, for example, courses for Aborigines, handicapped persons, are often

designed by TAFE colleges in conjunction with DEYA and other interested community groups. Again, however, its role in this field is not limited to provision of courses in response to needs identified by manpower authorities. Its general charter requires that it respond to the needs expressed by the community.

The role of TAFE is complex and far ranging, and built into its system is a capacity for flexibility and responsiveness. While its main activities relate to credentialling it has a widening involvement in providing educational opportunities within the community. One basic objective behind TAFE course development is that TAFE should attempt to remove barriers from, and encourage entry into, technical and further education by adults and those who have left school.

While encouraging further education for these groups is part of TAFE's charter, it is also seen as a responsibility of the entire education system by the Working Party on the Transition from Secondary Education to Employment. The working party stated that education systems should recognise the difficulties that school leavers face in the current labour market. Such recognition led to increasing involvement of the education system in the provision of further education or re-education/retraining for young people who find it difficult to obtain or retain employment.

An example of TAFE and a secondary school working together to assist early school leavers can be seen at one school where attempts were made to resolve the difficulties of early school leavers with poor literacy and numeracy skills. A teacher was provided by the local TAFE college, and the school operated an after-school remedial education program catering for up to 23 pupils on a voluntary basis. The pupils were mainly ex-members of the school who were unable to obtain work. In all cases participants exhibited a number of problems, for

example, inability to function in a traditional school setting, poor numeracy and literacy skills, and a lack of social skills. The program ran successfully over the year, and seventy percent of participants found a job. While the TAFE Access Program did play a role in this course, it was basically a school initiative.

As previously stated TAFE plays a central role in the delivery of government manpower programs, although the respective roles and responsibilities of DEYA and TAFE are not clearly defined. It has been DEYA policy over the past few years to attempt to involve TAFE more directly in the running and funding of courses previously organised by DEYA, that is, administrators of the Department frankly state that 'TAFE has an overall responsibility to train people to meet industry's basic needs'.<sup>6</sup> DEYA is particularly anxious to see TAFE assume all training responsibilities for special courses under NEAT.

It is not known how the question of role and responsibilities in the education/training field are being resolved nor whether much communication takes place between the two systems. It is important to note, however, that there does seem to be limitations on the role of TAFE in the field of 'Access' education, through which courses for the unemployed can be provided. These limitations include:

1. The lack of earmarked finance to run access programs (as distinct from formal credentialling courses). This is partly due to both its complex funding arrangement with the States and particularly the Commonwealth; and the relationship of the colleges with the State Education Department (see 6. below).
2. The involvement and interest of TAFE college principals in the field of community access education. Colleges have varying degrees of autonomy. Some principals concentrate primarily

on mainstream technical education. Others have particular interests in the development of community education.

3. The ability of TAFE colleges to recruit and use properly trained and experienced teachers in the field of adult education. It appears that colleges differ markedly in their ability to control and recruit teachers.
4. The policy boundaries imposed on individual colleges by central administration. At present, TAFE has a role to react to demand rather than stimulate or initiate it. Additionally, its focus is regarded as basically educational and/or vocational. It does not see its role as developing or funding vocationally oriented 'welfare' style programs. Thus, it has, at present, a limited ability to completely take over some of the basic social/life skills programs now under the NEAT system. This was made particularly clear by the Director of Technical Education when commenting on TAFE's refusal to take over a vocational training and social skills program conducted under NEAT funding. The Director stated: 'TAFE has neither the authority nor the resources to take over a large scale commitment to an outside organization'.<sup>7</sup>
5. Limited capacity to respond quickly to heavy one-off course demand – particularly relevant for 'Skills in Short Supply' courses.
6. The complex relationship of the varying colleges with the Education Department. Variables include:
  - \* varying systems of funding to individual colleges;

- \* issues of staffing and local control;
- \* the fact that TAFE programs are delivered not only in TAFE colleges but also in many high schools;
- \* the uncertain provision of funds for Access Programs for the educationally and socially disadvantaged.

The general question of the roles of DEYA, TAFE and the Industrial Training Commission in providing skilled labour for industry has not been properly investigated but there seems to be a great deal of overlap.

Another organisation interested in the need for, and the development of, appropriate training programs for industry and commerce is the National Training Council (NTC). In theory, the NTC, through its Industry Training Committees, has a role in determining skill shortage in industry and taking action to encourage training by industry and through the NEAT system to provide courses to alleviate these shortages. The success of this process is dependent on the ability of the NTC to provide a wide and comprehensive coverage of industrial areas.

The TAFE system also has a charter for course development for 'Skills in Short Supply' and it may inhibit the development of the NTC if it is perceived by industry as more responsive to industrial needs. TAFE colleges do provide courses for industry, both on a formal credentialling basis and, in some cases, at the local level through short ad hoc courses.

It is noted that the three major players in this field - the Industrial Training Commission, NEAT through the National Training Council and TAFE, all have extensive and formalised networks of industry training committees,



all examining the need for industrial training from different perspectives. There appears to be some relationship between TAFE and ITC, but little between them and NTC. The question of communication and co-ordination and the need for a proper definition of roles is paramount.

Whatever the responsibilities and roles are seen to be, it is clear once again that there is room for communication and co-ordination between the national manpower body - the DEYA and TAFE. It is difficult to determine where education ends and training begins. Perhaps it is not a crucial question. What is crucial is that instead of meaningless demarcation disputes, training and educational facilities will be provided to ensure maximum access and participation of all the community, particularly the unemployed. Both TAFE and DEYA have a role to play but a great deal more communication is needed to make sure that the determination of needs is thorough and systematic, and that the facilities (and finance) provided are adequate.

### Conclusion

The school system then is slowly moving towards an active role in the provision of basic career-related education. This is significant because it is clear that existing manpower programs are tending to pick up areas of activity which may be seen to at least overlap with the education system. This is particularly true of programs such as CYSS, SYETP and EPUY. This is not to say that each of these programs does not have a meaningful role to play, but rather that their functions might be altered and harmonised more adequately with other measures of assistance if the school system took a more active role in preparing students for the transition from school to work.



The introduction of programs such as CYSS, SYETP and EPUY, all with basic socialisation, educational and work experience orientations implies that the education system is not providing students with adequate life and work skills, nor with a meaningful knowledge of the work world. The question to be asked is should the manpower system be involved in providing programs for young people which concentrate on inculcating job seeking skills, providing basic work experience, providing remedial education and imparting work skills. If there is a continuation of programs which concentrate on these functions (CYSS, SYETP and EPUY) there is obviously room for co-ordination and communication between these two systems.

There is a danger that manpower program development in this area might forestall a more active and appropriate role for the education system and DEYA itself. This is particularly significant in view of the fact that programs such as CYSS, SYETP, NEAT Special and EPUY currently consume over two thirds of the manpower budget. That the manpower authority is so heavily involved in improving employability and supply of the mainstream of school leavers without any attempt to improve demand for them is testimony to its lack of overall planning and direction. That both the education system and the manpower authority are taking active roles in this area without meaningful communication ensures that the basic questions of need, responsibility, co-ordination and co-operation will not be resolved quickly.

As indicated in this report, any improvement in preparing students for the work situation, either by the education or the manpower systems, or both, is not a panacea for overcoming unemployment. It is recognised in the report of the 'Working Party on the Transition from School to Work or Further Study' that attempts to assist particular school leaver groups to become better equipped for employment in a situation of high unemployment does not, by itself, create jobs for these young

people. The working party saw that action to make the transition process less difficult could increase competitiveness and distribute unemployment more equitably throughout the community.<sup>8</sup>

This somewhat pessimistic view is put into perspective by the 'Working Party on the Transition from Secondary Education to Employment' when they noted that:

The education systems have no control over the labour market situation and they cannot by themselves correct the social problems which arise from unemployment or underemployment caused by economic policy and circumstances ... Major initiatives in dealing with the problem of unemployment among school leavers are required to be taken elsewhere.<sup>9</sup>

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APPENDIX DThe Disadvantaged Worker:  
Some theoretical considerations

Any study which attempts to analyse the provision of access to services for disadvantaged persons requires a clear operational definition of the particular target group concerned. This requirement was particularly necessary for this report, because many government statements about the manpower programs analysed made definite reference to the 'disadvantaged' or the 'most disadvantaged'. Without definition the term can become something of a political football, used to defend inadequate programs, or to discriminate among groups competing for funds or service. Historically, fluid definitions of disadvantaged status substitute for comprehensive public policy and programs, as each new definition and categorisation provides a diversion from the broad causal and structural factors involved.

As a consequence, the Brotherhood adopted the broad definition outlined in the main body of this report, and defined the causal factors - structural, social, and cultural, which contribute to disadvantaged status. It is considered that disadvantaged status is relative, but that an analysis of the causal factors impinging on any disadvantaged worker assists in defining the degree of disadvantage experienced by the worker. The causal factors outlined suggest the trends or solutions which are likely to be effective. Care is taken to distinguish between solutions which are directed to the cause of disadvantaged status, and those which are directed to the effects. The Brotherhood's experience in other areas of social policy, and in some of its own programs, has

demonstrated the clear distinctions between cause and effect, and the ramifications for policy and programming.

The Brotherhood's Family Centre Project is probably one of the best known experiments based upon a very careful analysis of the causes and effects of poverty on families. The well documented outcomes of the Family Centre Project support the argument for a multi-causal, multi-functional approach to complex social policy issues.

A number of alternative approaches were considered and rejected. Some of the more usual are briefly reviewed below.

#### The Critical Variable Approach

One way of defining disadvantaged status is the selection of one or more variables which are known to have a high correlation with disadvantage. The benefit of this approach is that data are usually available, allowing not only definition but quantification. Age, sex, ethnic origin, occupational category, and place of residence are among the more common critical variables used to substitute for definition. The limitations inherent in this approach are less obvious. Not all causal factors can be covered by critical variables, and such critical variables tend to lack discrimination when used in isolation. They are useful for description, but less useful, in an operational sense, for program development. Finally, they are limited in their usefulness as causally based definitions, because causal factors are complex and inter-related in their effects. This report selects certain critical variables to describe and quantify

disadvantaged workers but suggests a causally based operational definition.

### The Classification Approach

Another common way of defining the target group is to classify, categorise or describe certain particular groups in the community. Existing manpower programs adopt this approach, under the general title of Special Groups, the most common of which are the Aborigines, the handicapped and school leavers. The advantage of this approach is that it allows easy identification for administration, positive discrimination, and the development of specialised programs for groups of people who may have disadvantaging characteristics in common. The deficits of this approach relate to the high potential for labelling and stigmatising which programs and participants experience, confusion about cause and effect implicit in categorised programs, and the doubtful value and effectiveness of highly specialised services based upon such classifications. The planning principles outlined in this report suggest that local, multi-functional programs are to be preferred, and although highly specialised programs should be considered, they are secondary to this overall approach.

### Definitions based on the Effects of Disadvantaged Status

Finally a third approach is to define disadvantaged status in terms of its effects. This approach is more common in the study of poverty and in welfare programs. It selects the most observable characteristics of the disadvantaged, and consequently produces

definitions which are based upon the symptoms or outcomes of disadvantaged status. Almost inevitably such definitions reinforce the notion that the victim is to blame for his condition, and lead to programs which attempt to ameliorate the effect of disadvantaged status, rather than its causes. Ultimately there may be a need for secondary programs in the welfare sector which are designed to support disadvantaged workers who are seriously affected by their status. However, it is argued that manpower programs should never be based on this approach. The major objective of manpower programs is to affect the employment position of participants - not to compensate for the effects of unemployment.

#### Advantaged and Disadvantaged Employment

The major focus of this report is of course the unemployed. However, it should be recognised that there are certain conditions which affect the status of the employed. Some of the major factors are summarised here.

##### Advantaged Work

Job satisfaction. Work is stimulating, often challenging, is perceived as contributing to the good of society, gives the worker scope for personal involvement and the development of new skills and abilities.

Security. The worker can develop skills which are in demand or transferable. Avenues for retraining or further education are available, and employee conditions provide for security of tenure and/or superannuation.

Income. Income is adequate for the basic needs of the worker and allows the worker to develop wider interests and abilities in society at large.

Choice. The worker has career paths available and can make changes with defined options available.

#### Disadvantaged Work

Job satisfaction. Work is monotonous and provides little opportunity to develop new skills, or little opportunity for the worker to contribute to, or change, the work situation. There are no opportunities for advancement, the work environment is unpleasant, dangerous or noxious, and the work is not perceived as being of significance, either to the worker or to society as a whole.

Security. When few skills are developed there is little chance of transfer to other fields, and the worker is vulnerable to technological or economic change. Avenues for retraining or further education are non-existent, limited or unknown to the worker. The particular industry of the worker is affected by swings in the economic situation, retrenchment is common, and there are no conditions providing for security of tenure.

Income. The wage is low, and it is difficult for the worker to meet basic needs, and develop outside interests. Mobility is limited and relocation with resultant costs is not available to the worker.



Choice. All the above conditions limit choice, and the worker's opportunities to move to other more satisfying employment. Disadvantaged employment means lack of options available to the worker.

The above factors distinguish advantaged and disadvantaged employment, and highlight the fact that not all disadvantaged workers are unemployed. However, the terms of this project require a focus on the planning and development of issues deriving from the study of the disadvantaged employed would have to be the subject of further research. Some overseas developments have seen manpower programs planned for those workers who are employed, but vulnerable and severely disadvantaged, and further consideration should be given to these workers in Australia. The planning principles for manpower programs for the unemployed which are proposed in this report apply equally to manpower programs for the employed.

These considerations were the major issues considered in the definition of the disadvantaged worker. Some care was taken to consider the implications of different approaches to the definition, and to avoid an approach which was inconsistent with the values outlined, or which affected the outcomes of manpower programs.

